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ABSTRACT

This collection of nine essays and reports which deal with issues of importance in the progression of Native American education was published by members of the Dine Teacher Corps Project '78 in an effort to stimulate the thinking of curriculum practitioners: content is aimed at affecting administrative styles and the construction and implementation of curriculum. An introduction relates a brief history of Indian Education and reports that the most fundamental need presently is for a change in point of view. Chapters one and two are devoted to the administrative leadership styles necessary for programming: the third and fourth discuss the administrator's role in the development of instructional programs: the fifth and sixth use specific bilingual programming to show the relationship a curriculum must have to particular Indian values, experiences, and needs: and the seventh, eighth and ninth chapters report studies on inservice, financial planning, and leadership programs which are designed to assist the administrator to successfully facilitate effective changes in Native American education. (JD)

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Reservation Schools and 95-561:

The Administrator and the Curriculum

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College of Education
Northern Arizona University
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Diné Teacher Corps Project

Howard Roberts, *Dean*
College of Education
Northern Arizona University

Office

Psychology Building, Room 143
Box 6002
Flagstaff, Arizona 86011
(602) 523-2009 or 523-2540

Staff

Roger Wilson, *Project Director*
Dennis Salas, *Documentor/Evaluator*
Mary Ann Smith, *Inservice Coordinator*
Danna Minch, *Secretary*

RESERVATION SCHOOLS AND 95-561:
THE ADMINISTRATOR AND THE CURRICULUM

Editors:

Dr. Carl G. Foster
Northern Arizona University

Mr. Sigmund A. Boloz
Ganado Public Schools

Mr. Dennis Salas
Northern Arizona University
Teacher Corps

Artist:
Steve Darden

Diné Teacher Corps Project
Northern Arizona University
Roger Wilson, Director

FOREWORD

This book focuses on Native American curriculum practitioners. The targets include the teaching personnel who keep the curricula in motion as they constantly strive to develop the maximum potential of each student and the administrator who assists the practitioners in the carrying out of the curricula in accordance with desired student, community, and legislated expectations.

Our aim is to provide materials that will stimulate Native American educators to examine their thinking about instruction and to introduce plans to augment these ideas into the school that can be accepted and managed. The thrust is to progress the education of the Native American--rather than remain at the current level.

We take strong positions on many issues. We believe deeply in these points and feel that they are necessary in the progression of Native American education. Furthermore, we feel that these issues accurately reflect the intent of Public Law 95-561 and other legislation that presently is affecting reservation education. In fact--it is our hope that readers establish their own position and utilize these beliefs to promote further instructional direction.

The content is so constructed to couple administrative styles with curriculum construction and implementation. The first two chapters are devoted to the administrator and to leadership styles necessary for programming. The third and fourth chapters discuss the administrator and the instructional program. In the fifth and sixth chapters, specific programming is discussed to show the relationship a curriculum must have to such considerations as bilingualism. Lastly, some thoughts are devoted to inservice and budgeting and how they assist the administrator in augmenting the curricula.

Carl Foster
Sigmund Boloz

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INTRODUCTION

Indian Education is as old as Indian life. Education for the Indian has always been the supreme overriding social imperative.

The Seventeenth Century

The first European settlers came to the American southwest, the traditional home of the Navajo, in the seventeenth century. They were from Spain and they brought priests with them who established the first schools--mission schools--for the Navajo. Their holy purpose, as they saw it, was to civilize the savages through Christian education, and some thought this could be brought about through the eradication of the Navajo culture.

The Navajos successfully rebelled against the Spanish intruders, but the inevitable penetration of the white man's customs and culture had begun, and it was only a matter of time before the Navajos would be engulfed by the white invasion.

The Nineteenth Century

After nearly 200 years of conflict between whites and the Navajos in the southwest, in 1868, an historic treaty was concluded between the Navajo Nation and the United States Government. In return for many promises made by the government, the Navajos agreed to end their attacks on white settlements and to settle peacefully on a reservation that encompassed much of their traditional tribal lands. One of the provisions of the treaty, which was standard in most Indian agreements of the day, had to do with education. Article VI of the treaty reads as follows:

> In order to insure the civilization of the Indians entering into this treaty, the necessity of education is admitted, especially of such of them as may be settled on said agricultural parts of this reservation, and they therefore pledge themselves to compel their children, male and female, between the ages of six and sixteen years to attend school; and it is hereby made the duty of the agent for said Indians to see that this stipulation is strictly complied with; and the United States agrees that, for every thirty children between said ages who can be induced or compelled to attend school, a house shall be provided, and a teacher competent to teach the elementary branches of our English Education shall be furnished, who will reside among said Indians, and faithfully discharge his or her duties as a teacher.

This Article, which "was contained to illustrate the Great White Father's profound desire to provide for his ignorant red wards an opportunity to develop and progress" was never really lived up to by the United States Government, and it became a major source of discord between the Navajos and the government.

"Civilization" is the key concept in Article VI and the Indian peace policy fostered by President Grant and his successors. By "civilization" is meant here the extermination of Indian culture and the assimilation of the Indian into the now dominant white culture.

In 1887 Congress passed the Compulsory Indian Education law and "thereafter the Navajo educational system developed the aspects of a penal system." It was thought that if the young Indian child was completely separated from his parents, and his culture, and indoctrinated into the white man's ways, he could then be absorbed into the mainstream of white society. In order to facilitate this policy the government established boarding schools away from the reservation and its influences where very young children were sent to be educated.

In 1882 a boarding school managed by missionaries was established at Fort Defiance in New Mexico. In 1890 another school was set up at Grand Junction, Colorado. These two schools were meant to serve the needs of all the Indians of the southwest. (At that time, however, it was not uncommon for a Navajo child to be sent as far away as California or Pennsylvania to be educated.)

Navajo children were often forced to attend these schools without parental consent. In some cases, Navajo parents who refused to send their children to boarding schools were arrested. (It would seem that Navajos were somehow considered exempt from the protection of the Constitutional right to due process.)

The Twentieth Century

When they were at the peak of their popularity at the close of the nineteenth century, as many of 27 boarding schools were opened in one year (1885). In spite of mounting criticism against boarding schools (much of it coming from Navajos) at this time, they continued to be the dominant mode of Indian education until the 1930's.

These schools were infamous for their treatment of those they were supposedly designed to educate. Children were forbidden to speak their own language and a kind of military discipline prevailed. Ankle chains and solitary confinement were not uncommon forms of punishment. Children were housed in overcrowded barracks-like dormitories and made to engage in manual labor for the support of the school.

Commissioner Francis E. Leupp (1904-1909) was the first government official to openly attack the boarding schools, calling them "educational almshouses."

The Meriam Report...the 20's

In 1926 a national study of Indian affairs was commissioned to analyze federal Indian policies and to recommend possible changes. Lewis Meriam and a group of associates at the University of Chicago were assigned the task of making a comprehensive survey of the social and economic conditions of the American Indian.

The Meriam Report, as it was labeled after publication in 1928, is considered to be the most significant social research attempt ever conducted in the field of Indian affairs. Three of the most serious deficiencies which the Meriam Report highlighted were:

*Indians were excluded from management of their own affairs.

*Indians were receiving poor quality services, especially health and education, from public officials who were supposed to be serving their needs.

*It exposed the outmoded teaching methods, primitive housing facilities for the students and staff cruelties toward the Indians.[1]

Indian Education: A National Tragedy...A National Challenge...the 60's

It is worthy of note that a Senate Subcommittee headed by Robert F. Kennedy, Senator from New York, studying the education of Indian children more than forty years later, was to stress the same findings:

> The dominant policy of the Federal Government towards the American Indian has been one of coercive assimilation. This has had disastrous effects on the education of Indian children. It has resulted in:
>
> A. The classroom and the school becoming a kind of battleground where the Indian child attempts to protect his integrity and identify as an individual by defeating the purposes of the school.
> B. Schools which fail to understand or adapt to, and in fact often denigrate, cultural differences.
> C. Schools which blame their own failures on the Indian student and reinforce his defensiveness.
> D. Schools which fail to recognize the importance and validity of the Indian Community. The community and child retaliate by treating the school as an alien institution.
> E. A dismal record of absenteeism, dropouts, negative self-image, low achievement, and, ultimately, academic failure for many Indian children.
> F. A perpetuation of the cycle of poverty which undermines the success of all other Federal programs.

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[1] Lewis Meriam, "The Problem of Indian Administration" in Indian Education: A National Tragedy...A National Challenge, Hearings before the Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, 91st Congress, 2nd Session, Report No. 91-501, November 3, 1969, p. 153.

The coersive assimilation policy has two primary historical roots:

A. A continuous desire to exploit, and expropriate, Indian land and physical resources.
B. A self-righteous intolerance of tribal communities and cultural differences.

The report concluded that the most fundamental need in Indian education is a change in point of view. In order to do that, the report stated that it would be necessary to raise the quality of teachers and other employees in the schools.[2]

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[2]U.S. Congress, Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Indian Education: A National Tragedy...A National Challenge, Hearings before the Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, 91st Congress, 2nd Session, Report No. 91-501, November 3, 1969, pp. 10-17.

Roger Wilson

Chapter 1

A Guide to Effective Leadership for the Reservation Administrator

Sigmund A. Boloz
Carl G. Foster

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The American educator has been in a continuous flux of change. He has interacted and reacted to such things as the courts, the community, and the students. His sole purpose has always been to provide meaningful, effective instruction for those who participate in his schools. The reservation educator has also been involved with change. He has been and is being dictated to by such things as H.R. 15, tribal pressure, and emergent traditional community values. Each change seems to promote thunderous ramifications in education and to the participants in the instructional processes. The purpose of this article is to present a guide to effective educational leadership, within the field, generally, and to the reservation administrator, specifically. Much attention will be focused on the line manager--i.e., the principal--with inferences drawn to all areas of administration.

The Principal

Principals, historically, are the line managers of the institution. They have been and are responsible for the carrying out of the institution's expectations. However, education is rapidly changing and reservation education is no different. Because of these changes, the present-day principal must examine: 1) the amount and the type of change taking place; 2) the manner in which change will be dealt with; and 3) the amount of change necessary to contribute to the overall improvement of the teaching-learning process of the school.

Lipham (7) strongly indicated that the principal is the critical factor in the success of any program in the school, and moreover, that he must have knowledge about leadership to effectively fulfill the principalship role. As a leader, the principal is seen as a change agent as distinguished from an administrator, in that his role is utilized to introduce new approaches and procedures to accomplish the school's goals and objectives. Based upon numerous studies, a principal's traits, behaviors, and competencies of leadership practices can only be defined in relation to the unique and differing conditions related to any situation. Therefore, principals on the reservation must be guided not by what someone, elsewhere, has done well, but by what is appropriate in the immediate environment.

In 1977, Kenneth Tye(15) suggested that leadership should be viewed as a concept, rather than a series of traits. He concluded that leadership is composed of four dimensions: 1) goal attainment of the school; 2) human processes within the school; 3) the socio-political context within which the school operates;

and 4) self-understanding. Tye strongly feels that after all the legislation and school policy and negotiations are formalized, it is the principal who is left to perform his leadership role where it really counts, in the school and the community. Lozeau (8) perhaps said it more simply when he indicated that leadership boils down to getting the job done. He, however, warned that if the principal does not adequately define his role, the role will be defined by others.

As does any school, reservation schools have expectations, which range from formally recognized policies of the school to the informal needs of the student and the community. The formal needs seem to be easily dealt with, while the informal desires are perhaps more difficult. McNeil (10) felt that awareness of the informal needs is crucial to the educational setting, for they tend to move the formal expectations of the school in different ways. He classified these informal desires into the category of a hidden curriculum with its origin in the student body, with its own formal power and authority. McNeil further stressed that the principal must be continuously aware of this hidden curriculum in order to offer content that will be of value to the student.

School expectations, ideally, mirror the cultural values of the community. The reservation principal must recognize the continuous conflict and friction occurring between the community and the school toward education. He must not expect that when the first school bell rings all will go well. Continuous assessment and monitoring of the school's/community's formal-informal expectations are needed. When these are performed, the proper selection of leadership techniques can be introduced with instruction augmented.

Human Process

The reservation principal is rapidly becoming aware that the once enjoyed autonomy is no longer. Pressures from the federal-state government, students, and the community are reducing this autonomy. At the same time, greater demands are being placed on getting the job done. Therefore, it is necessary to examine some methods and techniques that may be employed in getting the job done.

In any administrative position, a certain amount of risk taking is necessary. In educational administration, risk taking is justified only in relation to the amount of growth seen in the student. Barnard (1) indicated that administrators communicate to their staff only when the staff has accepted the direction as authoritative. He suggested that staff resistance will be minimal when: 1) communications are understandable; 2) they are consistent with organizational purposes; 3) they are compatible with personal interests; and 4) they are of a nature that subordination can comply with. Lipham (7), on the other hand, felt that administrators need to be concerned with fostering social behaviors that produce institutional productivity as well as individual satisfaction and reward. All, in turn, must be directly related to the institution's expectations with risk taking practices introduced only when necessary for growth.

In addition, a 1974 California School Effectiveness Study concluded that higher achieving teachers had: 1) principals who supported instructional areas; 2) more instruction was in social studies with less time spent in math, physical education, and health; 3) classes that were divided into several different pace

groups; and 4) individual classrooms that were divided into few groups and in which few materials variations were utilized. Although this study has suggested that there are numerous variables involved in any program, it is evident that the principal is a strong variable toward program success or failure.

The quality of a program, as Lipham stated, depends upon the selection and functioning of professionally qualified personnel who are capable of contributing significantly to the expectations of the organization. However, the selection of staff is only the beginning. A continuous in-service program is also necessary. Since the reservations have a high turnover of personnel which, in turn, facilitates a reduction in curriculum execution, it must become paramount for each principal to assist the staff in the effectiveness and efficiency of their educational roles. The time has long since passed in which the reservation teacher can experiment at the expense of the child or the program. In-service can range from group presentations to one-to-one interactions.

Schiff (12) has suggested that in-service can include anything from before school orientation conferences to regularly scheduled workshops and community visitations. He further has stated that no matter what the desired technique is, each avenue must be so designed as to insure educational accountability. Also included, as Herzberg (6) has portrayed, is the person's feelings toward job satisfaction. Therefore, persons involved in in-service programming must feel achievement, recognition, responsibility, and advancement. When applied properly, in-service can be a valuable tool to the reservation principal. It can facilitate teacher-community direction and promote intra-inter satisfaction.

The delegation of authority is a component that may create an atmosphere of satisfaction among all participants. But, this delegation can loom as a threat to some, or create insecurities for others. Yet, as McMahon (9) has stated, top managers retain the policy making role by: 1) outlining the limits within which delegated authority is to be exercised; 2) making it clear what is delegated; 3) providing the required back-up; 4) keeping communications open; 5) checking on results; and 6) maintaining a conducive climate. However, the principal must exercise caution in this delegation, for not all participants may be prepared for the acceptance of authority. Thus, along with delegation must come an adequate foresight of what authority and how much the participant can handle. Proper selection must be undertaken to insure the smooth transfer of selected authority to predetermined participants. The principal who is capable of making this transfer adequately, is on the way to augmenting a more workable educational environment and a more directional instructional setting.

Political Context

The process of education has been and still is an intense political issue. The Congress, federal-state agencies, local boards, and personnel are actively vying for some control over policies that govern instruction. Educational instruction on the reservation has been and is no different. Different factions are continuously manipulating-motivating others to their perceived instructional ends. The failure of the reservation principal to be aware of the school community as a highly complex political society may lead towards misunderstanding and friction with the end result being some form of termination or isolation. Situations such

as tribal ranking or community ranking of the participants must be known. This awareness, therefore, establishes a foundation for direction and allows for the proper selection of techniques for various situations. The principal who is aware can minimize some of the informal variables that affect the educational structure and can take steps accordingly to promote acceptable instructional programming.

Self-Understanding

There is little question that the job must be done. However, the reservation principal must learn to become introspective. A continuous examination of personal values and personal need dispositions is necessary. In addition, an awareness of and feedback from the community, staff, and students must be paramount. A feeling of openness and a willingness to check with his peers and family must be established for the purpose of activating numerous techniques for various situations of friction and conflict.

The principalship demands dedication and often the wearing of numerous hats. The job is usually a 24-hour-a-day activity, which involves great dependence on the physical and psychological make-up of the participant. In order to survive, the principal must keep his personal, private life in perspective with the needs of the institution. Some periodically divorce themselves from the job, while others change scenery on weekends. No matter how one does it, it must be done in a way that provides rejuvenation.

Conclusions

The principal on the reservation is not different from any other administrator. He has been charged with the education of all concerned and the effectiveness of this charge will depend upon the selection of leadership styles. The proper selection, in turn, will be dictated by the amount of the principal's awareness of the environment. Each must be a continuous interaction with the goal of making the task less difficult.

As a line manager, the reservation principal is the critical factor in the success of the school. Because of this responsibility, the principal must adequately define the principalship role and move in a directional manner toward getting the job done. To accomplish this, the reservation principal must be aware of possible hidden curriculums or environmental expectations. The principal must never assume anything, but must continuously assess and monitor the educational setting with a continuous refinement of directional leadership techniques.

All principals deal with people and make decisions that affect people. The amount of staff-student effectiveness and efficiency depends upon the amount of the principal's effectiveness and efficiency. Therefore, it is paramount that avenues are opened and facilitated that allow for participant satisfaction, achievement, and advancement. Leadership techniques such as in-service, delegation of responsibility, and direction must be utilized for the augmentation of all concerned. Included also must be the principal's ability to be introspective. Awaremess of intra-values and need dispositions is necessary and must be continuous. A feeling of openness and willingness must be established and continued. The principal on the reservation, who becomes aware of his unique environment and its variables is the one who will be directional. He will be the one who

facilitates the educational processes of the participants of that unique environment.

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Chapter 2

The BIA School Administrator and Effective Leadership

Carl G. Foster
Sigmund A. Boloz

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The education of Navajo youth drastically changed with the signing of the Treaty of 1868 at Bosque Redondo. The United States government agreed it would provide a house and a competent teacher for every 30 children between the ages of 6 and 16, who could be induced or compelled to attend school. However, in 1884, only 20 pupils were enrolled in Fort Defiance, the first permanent school on the Navajo Reservation. By 1970, there were approximately 48 reservation boarding schools, 9 day schools, and 8 dormitories operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) and the number of Navajo students attending any type of school had swelled to more than 54,000.

It is clearly evident, with the increase of students and facilities and in the wake of numerous laws and often critical reports, that the leadership styles of the Bureau administrator could not remain static. As did others across the country, the BIA administrator had to adopt new techniques as each new situation arose. Until the late 1970's, school budgets, curriculum development, and the hiring and firing of staff rested outside the local BIA school site. Consequently, the typical BIA administrator was mainly concerned with planning, organizing, and controlling situations. Yet traditionally each of these tasks were performed with little interaction with the other.

However, Public Law 95-561 indicates that the present BIA school administrator will have increased responsibilities for the operation and maintenance of the instructional environment. Through P.L. 95-561, the responsibilities of the local boards of education are being increased, including greater power in overseeing all phases of the student's education. Because of this, some BIA administrators may be forced into a new role--effective leadership.

The definitions of leadership are diverse. As defined by Hampton (9), it can be "the interpersonal process by which a manager seeks to influence employees to accomplish tasks." Fiedler (4) suggests it is "...the relationships involving power and influence..." To the traditional BIA administrator, this may be a new realm. P.L. 95-561 has begun and will continue to create many new conflicts, and the BIA administrator who seeks the shelter of the office will intensify those conflicts. Therefore, to assist the administrator in the implementation of the law, this article will discuss leadership styles, subordinate styles, and situational factors that effect leadership.

Leadership Styles

Little conclusive evidence supports the idea that personality characteristics are important to successful management. Such characteristics are not defined consistently and are difficult to estimate or measure. However, useful information can be gleaned and utilized by the school administrator. Ghiselli (6) reported that a successful administrator possesses the ability to provide guidance and direction, and that intelligence and decisiveness are linked with success, but less strongly. Mahoney (11) concluded that an individual's interest and values may be indicators for predicting his effectiveness in general or in a specific job situation. He suggested that whenever possible, an administrator's interest should be investigated in relation to the performance desired.

Other studies, such as the one reported by Stogdill (18), show that leaders have a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, usually are vigorous and persistent in the pursuit of goals, are venturesome and original in problem-solving, exercise initiative in social situations, are self-confident and have a sense of personal identity, are willing to accept consequences for decisions and actions, exhibit a readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, show a willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, and demonstrate the ability to influence others or are able to structure social situations to the purpose at hand.

The need for power may also be manifested through leadership styles. Schrage (16) and Wainer and Rubin (20) stated that the personal-power leader tends to dominate, be inspirational, and make demands for personal loyalty. Some, because of their need to dominate, are overbearing in their actions and continually interfere with subordinates. This type is often quite uninhibited in exercising any sort of personal dominance that is not within the realm of the task.

On the other hand, the social-power leader tends to channel efforts toward impersonal commitments to do what the task requires. He differs from the personal-power leader, since personal-power is based upon the leader and tends to disappear when the leader leaves, while the loyalty evoked by social-power leader is attached to the organization and is more likely to survive when the leader leaves.

Furthermore, as Schrage, Wainer and Rubin have indicated, the most successful leaders have high needs for achievement and moderate to low needs for power. This achievement orientation tends to be compatible with the aggressive behavior that the organization requires for success, while the low need for power is channeled into the hiring of highly trained professionals whose technical abilities are able to contribute to the organization's success. But, the leader with a high need for power and a low need for achievement tends to hire subordinates who are less qualified professionally. Therefore, it seems that the higher the leader's need for achievement, the greater the organization's success, while the higher the leader's need for power, the lower the organization's success.

Investigations have been performed on task-oriented leaders, who are concerned with task accomplishment, and on people-oriented leaders, who are concerned with employee satisfaction. The task-centered leader depressed employee satisfaction and cohesiveness and was often described as autocratic, restrictive, socially distant, directive, and structural. As Stogdill (18) reported, task-centered leaders were most often associated with productivity--but their

autocratic or restrictive styles tended to inhibit it while their socially distant or directive styles were associated with productivity.

On the other hand, people-centered leaders were not consistently related to productivity either, nor did they always enhance employee satisfaction. These leaders were most often described as democratic, permissive, follower oriented, participative, and considerate. Stogdill generally felt that the task-centered leader seemed to accomplish the desired direction and the people-centered leader tended to promote employee satisfaction and group cohesiveness. Each style may have merit, however, and must be measured in relation to the goals and objectives of the institution, for each may produce the desired institutional outcomes.

Subordinate Styles

A leader is unable to lead unless there is someone who is willing to follow. Because of this fact, investigators looked at this marriage, and concluded that it is usually beneficial for the styles of the subordinates to be related to the styles of the leadership in order for maximum productivity to be achieved. Some have warned that the greater the deviation the less that is accomplished. Stimson (17) supported this view when he found that less experienced subordinates tended to prefer the people-centered leader, while the more experienced subordinates desired the task-centered leader.

To the educational leader, this is important, for it provides a foundation for the selection of the leadership style that most correctly fits the present subordinate situation. Another study which may support this hypothesis is Gouldner's (8) categories of locals and cosmopolitans. Locals tended to be high in loyalty to the organization and low in commitment to specialized role skills and the cosmopolitans were just the opposite. Through his study, it may be concluded that organizations are made up of employees who are in different roles. Because of these pre-existing roles, it may be necessary for the leader to establish numerous leadership styles in order to promote efficient organizational personnel direction.

Situational Factors

It is the belief of some, that situations have a direct bearing on the characteristics of the personnel and, therefore, the leadership of the administrator. According to Ray (15), the most effective leadership style was dependent on the situation. He concluded that task-centered leaders affect subordinate performance in either favorable or unfavorable situations, while people-centered leaders were associated with affecting performance in situations of intermediate difficulty. Blake and Mouton (1) suggested that leaders should be diverse in their styles. They felt that by being fluid, the leader could attain more productivity as well as augmenting more group satisfaction. Fiedler (4) found that the better the leader's relationship with the group, the more structured the task, and the greater the leader's power, the easier the situation was to manage. Finally, Golembrewski (7) suggested that personality, task characteristics, task roles, and group characteristics affect leadership. Because of these variables, he felt that leadership techniques should be selected according to the situation and may

have implied that an incorrect selection may cause incorrect subordinate responses.

Conclusion

Public Law 95-561 is a reality and is rapidly becoming more so to the Bureau administrator. The law brings more autonomy to the local school administrator, and it also brings more responsibility. It promotes, possibly for the first time, local control and, therefore, local administrator control. Hence, the administrator must be effective in his leadership role.

The law causes budgeting, personnel contracting, and the establishment, training, and guidance of school boards. Consequently, the traditional planning-controlling-organizing BIA administrator will shortly need to become the leadership oriented administrator. Much time has to be invested into the characteristics of leader, the needs of the subordinates, and the situations surrounding particular responses. Also, investigations have shown that a leader has to be concerned with the task as well as his subordinates and himself. Conclusions indicate that a leader who has too much concern will reduce the attainment of the desired direction. Studies strongly suggested that a leader must be fully aware of the goals and the objectives of the organization, and utilize the correct style to promote the desired direction of the organization. If the personal-power of the BIA administrator is more important than organization achievement, the school will be less successful and the subordinates less satisfied.

Possibly for the first time in the history of the Bureau, the administrator has the opportunity to become more of an instructional facilitator and less of a manager. To perform this task, much time will have to be devoted to becoming aware of the community's educational desires with legislated avenues sought for implementation. Coordination of all the physical-social-economical components will become paramount. Continuous administrator exposure to all will be necessary, for all will promote the desires of the local education system. The BIA administrator who fails to move as a leader may enjoy a short tenure of office.

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Chapter 3

The Curriculum and 95-561: The Administrator's Salvation

Carl G. Foster
Sigmund A. Boloz

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On November 8, 1979, H.R. 15 became P.L. 95-561. Its impact is already being felt on all reservations and will continue to be felt for many years to come. This impact has its foundation in an educator perceived aberrant philosophy. A philosophy that has never been attempted before by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Consequently, much time, restructuring, and insight is necessary in order for the law to be crystalized and desired educational direction to be insured. Most of the responsibility for the carrying out of 561 is on the BIA administrator and, moreover, a great deal of administrative accountability will be intensified to augment implementation.

The underlying philosophy behind the law is to place educational control at the local level and, at the same time, force local schools to be fiscally responsible for their instructional actions. This deviation from the previously accepted BIA practices of central control is cemented in very specific components throughout the law. For the first time, every school has represented citizens to aid in the overseeing of the academic-behavioral direction of the children for that community. These boards of education are actively attempting to assist the administrator in: 1) the making of school policy; 2) budgeting; 3) hiring and firing of personnel; and 4) contracting--practices which automatically have been given through past legal-legislated actions of board duties (17). Furthermore, under 561, tribal governments now have the power to approve all reservation basic education programs and to remove students from any setting when determined standards are not met. All phases of 561 are totally focused on the reduction of central supervision and the upsurgence of local and tribal responsibility for the educating of their student population.

Bureau schools are being directed toward complying with the intent of the law. Compliance is through instructional accountability which, in turn, is having the school's operating funds attached. Emphasis is placed on the numerical formula of a student's projected cost for instruction and measured against some form of student count in the instructional environment at predetermined times of the academic year. Conclusions about the school's instructional program are being drawn in relation to the number of students attending that school during the monitored periods of time. The instructional worth of the school is looked at in accordance to the number of students present and the operating cost for the school is adjusted in relation to its perceived instructional value to the student. For the administrator, justification for the continued operation of the setting rests on the instructional programming that meets the needs of the tribe, community, and

student. Once this has been undertaken, accountability is present and operational costs adequate. It is the purpose of this article to provide the BIA administrator with tools that will crystalize curriculums and increase instruction that meets the needs of all concerned participants.

Curriculum

There is no doubt that 561 is promoting educational redirection for the reservation participant. This new education approach will be completed either by the administrator or by other concerned participants. The amount and the manner in which the intent of the law is carried out is directly related to the administrator's ability or inability to acclimate to the wants, needs, and desires of all concerned. The greater the administrator denies these perceived expectations--the greater that the components of 561 are going to be activated for compliance with the desired instructional standards.

Every school has some form of instruction that has been either informally or formally defined as a curriculum. This mode of academic progression is the bases from which 561 is measuring to see whether predetermined educational needs are being met. Furthermore, the school's curriculum is the measurement of the worth of the administrator, and, moreover, the instrument for continuance or termination of the administrator. As the law has intended, schools are to operate from local control. Boards of education are attempting to become active in the instruction of their students. All legislated power is designed to insure that local participation is continuous and active. When dealing with students in the academic setting, the curriculum is the technology that is used to measure the amount of participation that is taking place. In addition, the amount and the intensity in which the student is learning is directly related to the amount and the intensity in which the curriculum is being utilized. Instruments such as tests, questionnaires, and teacher-prepared evaluations are becoming more acceptable and desired. All practices are designed to indicate what is taking place in the school and all are compared against the intent of the law. If the school fails to show through its curriculum that student progression is not present, the persons responsible will have difficulty justifying their worth to the instructional setting.

The curriculum that meets the needs of the student is the one that fulfills the intent of the law. Although simple in concept, the instructional process for meeting the student's needs is difficult to attain. In order to fit the instruction to the student, the school must become knowledgeable of what the student desires. Once this data has been acquired, the educational setting has to be adjusted in a sequential manner to adhere to the desired progression. Lastly, evaluation instrumentation is necessary to continuously monitor the academic setting and to justify the school's existence to concerned participants.

Needs Assessment

The accepted practice of the day seems to follow the scientific approach for the development of curricula. Taba (20) strongly supported the scientific practice in the development of the components of curricula. In her suggested nine steps, the first is the determining of the needs. McNeil (12) felt that no curriculum task is more important than the acquiring of the curriculum's warranted

ends and that the appropriate tool for formulating the needs is assessment. He further indicated that by identifying the needs, the investigator also uncovers local deficiencies and trends which have implication for what is to be taught. McNeil (12) viewed the first step in the development of curricula to be in the formulation of a set of tentative goal statements. Taba (20) seems to be in agreement. She suggested that some form of measurement of the educational setting is necessary for the determination of curriculum directionality. Both warned that special attention must be paid during this process to insure that the data collected accurately reflects the community's educational needs. Instrumentation, therefore, is critical and must be selected carefully to augment a valid outcome.

Doll (5) has strongly written that a needs assessment should generally include data about: 1) pupils; 2) social and cultural matters; 3) learning how pupils learn; and 4) subject matter--what pupils should learn. Instrumentation should be acquired to measure such things as: 1) pupil population; 2) home and family life; 3) transmitters of culture; and 4) transfer of learning processes. In addition, this investigator feels that data about: 1) teacher preparation; 2) programming; 3) effective school/parent communication systems; and 4) facilities should be collected and incorporated into the assessment process.

The central theme behind the needs assessment is to acquire as much data as possible to establish a foundation for instructional directionality. Included also, is the establishment of specific parameters from which to monitor existing instructional practices. Without the needs assessment, no foundation is present and no direction will be forthcoming. Assessment must be continuous. A predetermined timeline of every five years should be established for a formal needs assessment. Moreover, frequent in-house evaluations of whether the curriculum is meeting the needs should be undertaken.

Goals and Objectives and Instruction

Through the compiling of the assessment data, specific information is gleaned to indicate what or how education is perceived by the measured population. Based on this data, specific goals and objectives have to be established. Trump and Miller (22) feel that through the establishment of goals and objectives, the school formulates educational priorities. They, however, seem to warn that the goals and objectives have to greatly relate to the gleaned assessment data. Based on the established goals and objectives, Unruh and Alexander (24) express that individualized instruction becomes necessary. They seem to imply that due to the formulation of goals and objectives, instructional programming is determined and individualization necessary. By establishing goals and objectives that are in alignment with determined needs, parameters are defined and instruction incorporated to promote the predetermined outcome established by the goals and objectives. Also, as McNeil (12) has stated, goals and objectives communicate the general direction of policy, provide a concrete guide for selecting and planning learning opportunities, and set criteria for the evaluation of the learner's performance.

Goals and objectives are the foundation for the school's instructional programming. They establish the guidelines from which the curriculum operates.

They, however, must be in cohesion with the determined information acquired from the community. When there is alignment between the assessed needs and the goals and objectives, instruction is adjusted to direct the learner toward the desired outcome. And when the student attains the desired outcomes, they directly attain the community's perceived needs.

Evaluation

Evaluation is used to measure whether the established goals and objectives are meeting the assessed needs. Instrument selection is based on the previously defined desires. If measurement is not in cohesion with the goals and objectives, all data may be invalid and inaccurate conclusions could be drawn about the environment. Furthermore, invalid conclusions may augment the opposite desired direction of the community and the student.

Unruh and Alexander (24) felt that evaluation is an integral part of any instructional program. They recommended that an evaluation center be established with the responsibility of developing and selecting instruments that adequately measure the environment. McNeil (12) has indicated that evaluation is subjective, for it is based on something that has already been predetermined. He further felt that evaluation must vary according to the objectives that have been established. This varying of evaluations tends to add validity to the results. Each evaluation instrument should be selected in accordance to the area and the desired sample, i.e., classroom, teacher, and citizen. Trump and Miller (22) wrote that if instruction is individualized, then evaluation should be individualized. They also felt that evaluators are not necessarily change agents and the relationship of the evaluator to the instructional environment should be completely understood for progression to occur. All have indicated that evaluations should be on-going and diverse in nature. Instrument selection must occur in relation to the previously gleaned needs assessment data.

Administrative Leadership

The school's curriculum is the process from which the worth of the student is to be measured. The administrator is responsible for over-seeing and adjusting the instructional setting to facilitate the student toward desired educational direction. P.L. 95-561 is now a reality and its components are so constructed for the determination of the educational worth of the student. This practice is directly affecting the present-future existence of the administrator.

It is rapidly being realized that success and effectiveness of a curriculum lies in the support of all participants. Therefore, the administrator has to make a realistic effort to seek avenues that will enable the curriculum to be directionally functional. Ghiselli (8) stressed that administrators must provide guidance and direction. Stogdill (19) has shown that leaders must possess a strong drive for responsibility and task completion. The stronger the drive, Stogdill felt, for task completion, the greater the production. The administrator who plays an active role in the development of the curriculum, as Ray (16) has pointed out, must adjust to the situation. Blake and Mouton (2) have suggested that an administrator should be diverse in their style. Fiedler (7) found that the better the administrator's

relationship with the group, the more structured the task, the greater the leader's power. Moreover, the greater the achievement the administrator has, the lower the power that is desired. Mahoney (10) has found that an administrator's interest and values may dictate the effectiveness of that administrator.

The style and the values of the administrator seems to be the key for direction. The closer the fit between the administrator's views and the participant's views, the more directional the curriculum will be. The more directional the curriculum is, the more that the student moves toward established instructional worth. The greater the student attains the desired direction, the greater the school meets the standards of 561. And, finally, the more that 561 is adhered to, the more adequate the funding is for operation. Thus, the curriculum is the key for instructional direction and the administrator's leadership style is the key for facilitating the participants toward that direction. Failure to move and to motivate those involved will be directly related to the administrator's worth.

Conclusion

P.L. 95-561 has rapidly come on the scene. It is and will continue to be the driving force behind the redirection of Native-American education. The law brings with it very specific procedures which have an underlying philosophy of local control. To insure that perceived direction is attainable by all reservation schools, operating cost is attached to the number of students participating in an instructional setting. For the administrator, the adequate cost for operation is dependent upon the number of students participating in the academic setting. The number of student participants is directly related to the worth of the school's curriculum. If the student does not feel that the instructional setting is important, participation will be limited. And if the student is not present--money for operation will be adjusted. Through the adjustment of the funding, questions are going to be raised about the academic personnel.

To augment the validity of the school, the curriculum seems to be the instrument necessary. However, to develop an adequate instructional approach, a scientific philosophy must be applied. Incorporated into this design must be a needs assessment of all concerned; the establishment of goals and objectives that are in cohesion with the gleaned assessed data; and evaluations which measure what the predetermined goals and objectives desire. If all of the components are in alignment with the desired determined community direction, the school will comply with 561 and the monies necessary for operation will be adequate.

The administrator is responsible for all of the functionings of the school. Under 561, the curriculum is going to become the major responsibility for the administrator. The types and the amounts of leadership styles that the administrator utilizes in motivating participants toward curriculum augmentation will be directly related to the judged worth of the administrator. Therefore, because of the importance of the curriculum and the importance of the leadership that is necessary for curriculum increases, the administrator must become their abilities and/or inabilities to promote desired instructional direction.

P.L. 95-561 is having an impact on the reservation. Its underlying philosophy is the movement away from central control to local control. Through

this movement, the administrator is undertaking a new role. Included in this role is accountability. The degree of accountability is being evaluated in relation to the worth of the instructional setting. To cement the desired worth, administrative leadership must be activated and directed toward the curriculum. If done in relation to the local needs, the continuation of that administrator will be forthcoming. If not done properly, the specific components of 561 will be activated and the worth of that administrator will be in question.

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Chapter 4

Reservation Schools and the Administrator: An Idea on the Development of the Curricula

Sigmund A. Boloz
Carl G. Foster

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The 70's became the harbinger of educator worth and the reservation administrator must be cognizant that this concept is now hovering over every school. Recent legislation is crystalizing this concept through the augmentation of the right to an equal education. Public Law 95-561 is the most recent attempt to promote equality of education for the Native American child. Its main thrust seems to be in redirecting instruction through local participation. To i re that the law's intent is carried out, monies are attached to programmin participation effectiveness and administrator worth will be evaluated ir dance to fiscal operation. The implications are clear. To meet this n each reservation school must develop and carry out an established se fiable instructional priorities, which are enclosed in a curricula. Th ıla, furthermore, must be in cohesion with the community gleaned values an mined on measurable data. Because 561 is now ever present, the harbi educator worth is present in every reservation school.

Due to the fact that the law's intent must be implemented through a curricula, the responsibility falls to the reservation administrator. Therefore, the worth of the administrator and of the school, in turn, will be measured in relation to how successfully the curricula meets the needs of the community and the intent of the right to equality. The purpose of this article is to present ideas on a curricula paradigm that facilitates desired outcomes and increases administrative accountability. This model has a philosophical foundation in the scientific approach with attention given to ensuring "curricula fit" with community expectations and the components of 561.

The Approach

Public Law 95-561 dictates the parameters of a school's curricula. Desired outcomes, and, therefore, parameters appear in the law's components. For example, funding practices and school responsibility predetermine the end result. The process, however, is left to the community and the development of a curricula is delegated to the administrator of the local school. In addition, administrator worth is attached to meeting the community's educational needs. Consequently, the administrator must develop instructional programming that meets these desired predetermined outcomes. To help the administrator in complying with the wanted instructional direction, a workable system is necessary. The

scientific approach is composed of sequential practices which are introjected at predetermined intervals to gain information necessary for making valid decisions and/or curricula adjustments. This paradigm has four basic phases. They are: 1) assessment of needs; 2) evaluation of existing curricula; 3) curriculum development, and 4) evaluation. Each phase is introduced to promote instructional direction. All data are based on measurable criteria which activate or evaluate instructional procedures.

needs assessment:

The initial step in developing a sound curricula is to assess the community's dominant values. This process is a well-planned, continuous recycling procedure with undefinable parameters. It is well-planned in that all participants are aware of its purpose and have knowledge of its clearly defined highly structured timeline. Further, it is continuous and recycling in that it is performed every three to five years with data collected in a longitudinal nature. Lastly, it has undefinable parameters, so that no preconclusions can be drawn to contaminate the data. By precluding, this impulse, instrument selection is more numerous and information more accurate.

Whenever instruments are administered to the community, the research practice of random sampling is incorporated. By utilizing random sampling, the investigator is insured of acquiring data that more accurately represents the entire population which is necessary for adequately gleaning perceived values. As the data is gotten, it is prioritized according to the community's frequency of occurrance. Through this prioritization, value trends are formulated. The number of times that a particular value is indicated, determines its importance to the community. When ranked, community expectations of education are determined.

evaluating the existing curricula:

Once the data has been ranked according to its frequency of community importance, it becomes the criteria from which the present curricula is evaluated. Conclusions that are drawn from this comparison indicate what is needed, and what is presently working in the curricula. Based on the evaluated results, new curricular goals are formulated and instruction adjusted to meet the desired needs of the community.

Curricula goals progressively formulate instruction. Each goal is produced to direct selected community outcomes. Each serves as a justification from which instruction is introduced, maintained, or adjusted. All curricula goals are concrete and measurable in nature. Concreteness is secured through specifically wanted end results and promoted through instrumentation that measures the end result. Thus, curricula goal formulation becomes an extension of community gleaned prioritized data which has been ranked according to its community frequency and measured against existing curricula practices. It serves as a focal point from which future instructional methodology is selected and when activated, becomes the bases for realignment in accordance with wanted community educational expectations.

curriculum development:

A curricula is the sum of all the curriculums. Curriculums, in turn, are instruction methodologies that are used to facilitate desired curricula outcomes. Failure to have cohesion between the two, reduces desired directionality in meeting dominant community values.

Curricula goals are indicators of what is wanted. Curriculum objectives are the sequential deliniation of curricula goals, and, therefore, the procedure for the attainment of what is wanted. Curricula goals are general in nature. Curriculum objectives are specific and build upon one another. All objective building is designed to reach the curricula goal. Each objective is finite and measured within a predetermined period. Every curriculum objective predetermines instruction and the incorporation of hardware and software. Curriculum objectives, therefore, are the continuous procedure of the curricula goals.

Curriculums are everything that increases the students' education instructionally. They, therefore, range from academics to activities and incorporate such things as discipline and clubs. Therefore, all curriculums become sequential in nature with the establishment of objectives that pyramid to the desired curricula goal and "dove tail" into one another to more effectively expedite student progression toward community expectations.

curricula-curriculum evaluation:

Curricula goals and curriculum objectives predetermine the evaluation. Through the establishment of goals and objectives desired outcomes are dictated. Evaluation, therefore, is utilized to accurately measure the participants' attainment of these desired directions. Instrument selection is performed in relation to the goal or objective. Goal and/or objective completion is evaluated based on the participants' assimilation of desired data.

Since curriculum objectives are sequential in nature and constructed for a predetermined time, evaluation is in alignment and continuous. Based on the data gleaned in accordance with the evaluated curriculum objective, conclusions are drawn as to the worth of the objective and/or the learning by the participants. Adjustments are made and wanted direction continued.

Curriculum objective evaluation assists in curricula goal evaluation. By evaluating curriculum objectives continuously, valid conclusions are drawn about curricula goals. In turn, curricula goal evaluation, which may be done only once in a student's academic tenure, serves to evaluate the curriculum objectives. Through the curricula goal evaluation, curriculum objective strengths and weaknesses are determined.

Evaluation is based on curricula goals and curriculum objectives. All are in alignment with gleaned community values. The evaluation's only purpose is to measure whether the sequentially delineated curriculum objectives are in alignment with the curricula goals and the curricula goals are in cohesion with community expectations. If for any reason the evaluation does not indicate this alignment, adjustments are made and direction continued.

Conclusions

Societal pressure is being placed on the reservation administrator. More and more, legislation is being enacted to force the desired outcome of equality of education for all. For the reservation administrator, in particular, Public Law 95-561 is the legislation that is promoting equality of education for the Native American. The components are so designed to increase community participation in education. Funding is attached to insure that these processes are carried out to the fullest and that the Native American receives an adequate equal education that is dictated by the community. The reservation administrator has been delegated the responsibility to make sure that this legislation is carried out and, in turn, he is accountable for its implementation. The major form of measurement is the curricula. All administrative worth, therefore, will be judged by how well the curricula is adhering to the intent of the law.

Since the curricula is the cornerstone for the measurement of administrator worth, it is important to have a workable program that is meeting the components of 561. The scientific approach is one method that can be utilized in the development of programming. The method is so designed as to develop and/or adjust instruction that meets the expectations of the community. The components are constructed to provide information necessary for curricula decision making and, therefore, justification of administrator worth. This approach has four basic components.

The four basic components are assessment of needs, evaluation of the existing curricula, curriculum development, and curricula-curriculum evaluation. All these elements dove-tail into the other and are introduced to augment predetermined practices.

The scientific approach is a method used to promote direction. The reservation administrator who uses this approach properly will be the one who adheres to the prescribed mandates and the one who will be valued. Those who do not or who contaminate this approach will be questioned as to their program and, therefore, to their present-future worth.

Chapter 5

Bilingualism and the Native American: Some Thoughts

Sam Eckhart
Carl G. Foster

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The Navajo Treaty of 1868 is a concrete example of the establishment of a pattern of education which has persisted, essentially unchanged in spirit, to the present day. Article VI particularly crystalizes the intent of the agreements with the following:

> In order to insure the civilization of the Indians entering into this treaty, the necessity of education is admitted...and the United States agrees that, for every thirty children between the said ages who can be induced or compelled to attend school, a house shall be provided and a teacher competent to teach the elementary branches of an English education shall be furnished, who will reside among said Indians, and faithfully discharge his or her duties as a teacher. (12)

Now, more than 110 years after those words were transcribed, Native American students are among the lowest achievers not only in the State of Arizona (7) but nationwide (2). For the child who enters school as a non-English speaker, the probability of receiving an inferior education runs high. Native American students, in general, achieve at a much lower level than their Anglo counterparts (2). This gap seems to widen as grade level increases suggesting a pattern of progressive retardation. The Native American student who remains in school until graduation is approximately three years behind the national average (2).

It is generally agreed that all children approach the educational starting line with similar cognitive capabilities. Other differences must exist then, which impede the academic progress of Native American children. Unique cultural and language backgrounds are factors which may contribute to a poor fit between the student's experience and the school environment. Basically, two alternatives are available for narrowing this discrepancy. Either the student must be altered to meet the school program or the school must transform its program to parallel the student. From mission schools, federally operated educational agencies, to public schools, the dominant notion, historically, seems to be to change the child. The melting pot concept in the strictest sense has prevailed. The purpose of this paper is to discuss two bilingual concepts, analyze some major reading strategies utilized for non-English speakers' education, and examine research comparing achievement levels of children taught with different strategies.

Bilingual Concepts

Motivation for acquiring a second language may have either voluntary or involuntary origins. Voluntary bilingualism has intellectual growth as its mainspring. Students in this category enter school as native speakers of the dominant society's language. Instruction, whether conducted in the student's first or second language, seems to produce successful results (6). The voluntary bilingual normally attains literacy in both languages, thus approaching adulthood with an added qualification. In contrast, the involuntary bilingual has the second language forced upon them as a function of survival in the dominant society. The participant is most commonly a part of an ethnic minority group, and the native language is not that of the governing sector. Achievement levels of students in this category seem to indicate the consequences of an inadequate educational fit.

The average Native American child, who comes to school as a speaker of his tribal language, may be considered an involuntary bilingual. If this student is to emerge from the educational system with a range of opportunities equal to the average American high school graduate, there is no choice but that he must accomplish literacy in the English language. Sharing this common end, voluntary and involuntary strategies have evolved as programming for the non-English speaking child and, moreover, may be the cause for the slowness of student progression. The cause may lie in the dominant society's perception of these two types of bilingual philosophies and, therefore, the improper selection of techniques which may decrease student instructional direction.

Major Reading Strategies

A humanistic society takes pride in providing an equal education for all its citizens. The concept of equality and sameness, however, are not synonymous and should not be confused. Justice Douglas in delivering the opinion of the Supreme Court in the Lau v. Nichols decision perhaps stated this best when he said:

> ...there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education (10).

Numerous techniques have been introduced into the educational programming of bilingual students. In the area of initial reading, most would fall into one of two categories. These techniques are most commonly identified as the native language approach and the direct approach (3). The native language approach operates from the assumption that students are introduced to reading through selected mediums of the mother tongue. Spoken English is taught concurrently and as the student reaches an independent level of reading in the vernacular, reading in the second language is introduced. Dual literacy, in both of the student's languages, is the ultimate goal of this approach. Supporters of the native language approach view the reading process as being secondary to oral language; written language can have meaning only when the reader understands the printed word in spoken context. Expanding the premise that a shared set of aural symbols is a prerequisite to meaningful oral communication. Proponents of the native language approach

further hypothesize that a similar type of mutual symbolic understanding must exist between the writer and reader in order for graphic communication to be meaningful. Furthermore, the transference of decoding skills developed while learning to read in the mother tongue is thought to ease the attainment of second language reading ability.

The direct approach, on the other hand, utilizes the second language only after the spoken form has been learned reasonably well (1). Incorporation into the national life by means of English literacy is the primary goal of this approach. Maintenance of the student's native language skills is considered the responsibility of the home. The success of the direct approach to initial reading instruction is contingent upon the acquisition of a sizeable oral vocabulary in the second language (11). Various estimates of the vocabulary magnitude of the six-year old native English speaker range from 2,500 to 17,000 words (4). No matter which approximation is accepted, it is apparent that a child entering school unable to speak English is at a serious disadvantage and has a large deficit to compensate if reading instruction in the second language is to be successful. The concept load found in the primary and basal readers to be used with these students will be an additional factor for consideration in determining readiness for second language reading instruction (8).

Modiano studied the Indian educational setting in the Chiapas highlands of Mexico (5). Incorporated in the study was a comparison of the direct and native language approaches to reading instruction. The primary goal of the education was to incorporate the student into the dominant Mexican societal structure. The sample consisted of 1,601 children in twenty-six schools of which Spanish was considered to be the second language. Teachers were asked to identify those students who were able to "...understand what they read in Spanish." The identified students were then evaluated using a Spanish reading test developed for specific relevance to the Chiapas Indian child. The study concluded that the native language approach was the most effective way in teaching reading comprehension in the second language (5).

In another study. the two strategies were compared. The native language approach was implemented at Rock Point Community School while the direct approach became the standard for the Chinle Agency of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (9). Both institutions are located on the Navajo Reservation. The investigators, Rosier and Farella, compared the achievement levels of students being taught initial literacy in the native language and having continuous bilingual education with achievement levels of BIA students who participated in a monolingual English education. The Stanford Achievement Test was used as a common measure of achievement. Rosier extended the study in the form of a dissertation. He concluded that the effects of bilingual instruction are cumulative (8). It was also found that students who participated in the native language approach scored significantly higher than the students who were instructed under the direct language approach in achievement.

Conclusion

Attempts to impose the educational philosophies of the 1860's on the

development of educational programming for the modern Native American student have proven futile. The insistence upon blindly following traditional instructional strategies, devised by and for the dominant sector of society, has retarded the academic achievement of Native American students. The time has come to view this problem from a new perspective and to pose new questions in the establishment and implementation of viable solutions.

One variable which has been consistently overlooked is the source of motivation for bilingualism among Indian students. Motivation for second language acquisition seems to have two primary origins, voluntary and involuntary. A voluntary foundation revolves around acquiring a second language for intellectual growth. Involuntary motivation, on the other hand, implies that the student has no choice in the matter if equal opportunity as an adult participant in the world outside the reservation is a desired goal.

The dominant trend in American Indian education seems to be instruction via the medium of the English language. Little, if any, consideration has been given to the motivational factors encouraging the child to become literate in the English language. Research indicates that the direct approach to initial reading has been most successful with the voluntary bilingual and then only after a sufficient speaking vocabulary has been attained. Failure to meet either of these prerequisites may lead to reading failure. The direct approach to initial reading instruction, however, has prevailed throughout the history of Indian education with repeated failure.

Innumerable research studies have indicated the superiority of the native language approach to initial reading instruction among involuntary bilinguals. This paper has described two such studies which illustrate the cumulative effects of the native language approach to reading instruction. This approach is in harmony with contemporary reading theories which stress the importance of written language being meaningful to the child in relation to his spoken language. Transference of acquired decoding skills to second language reading serves to complete the cycle culminating in dual literacy.

The fundamental key, therefore, to assisting the Native American in becoming bilingual is to be aware of the reason as to why the participant desires to learn a second language. Once this need is uncovered, then and only then, can instruction be selected to fit the need and direction. If the bilingual educator continues to fail to realize the reasons behind the Native Americans' learning a second language, all is meaningless.

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Chapter 6

Energizing the English Curriculum for the Non-Native English Speaker

Sigmund A. Boloz
Carl G. Foster

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The purpose of language is communication and the primary function of schools must be to adequately prepare all students to express themselves effectively and efficiently. However, when a student enters an educational mainstream with a set of values that do not completely parallel the system's, problems arise. Such is the case of the non-native English speaker.

Each student, whether a native speaker of English or not, has the right to be afforded the opportunity to augment and to refine his ability to communicate. However, since all students do not enter school with the same level of English proficiency, and with the same value system, traditionally accepted instructional materials and programming are not always appropriate. During the past decade, many school systems have realized these deficiencies and have taken steps to redress their curriculum in order to more adequately meet the needs of the non-native English speaker. For most, accepted language programming has been adjusted to the rate in which the child learns English, but few curricula have been changed to accommodate the unique, diverse backgrounds of the participants. Further, traditionally, these programs have had their major emphasis in the primary and intermediate grades, and although there is a need for learning to communicate values during the first years, consideration of the student's values is equally paramount at the secondary levels.

The purpose of this article is to present an overview of a model secondary English program, which is attempting to facilitate the acquisition of traditionally secondary English language skills but at the same time, is seeking to remain cognizant that each student brings to school a unique set of values. Further, although the ideas expressed in this article generally have strong implications for augmenting programming at the secondary level, and specifically have their roots in a program which serves a predominately Navajo student population, the ideas can be adapted to any cultural group and to any level of education.

Background

The Ganado Public School District is located on the Arizona portion of the Navajo reservation with a predominately Navajo student population. During the 1978-1979 academic year, questions were raised about the continuous reinforcement of student cultural values learned during the elementary years. Some wondered as to what indirect message the district was giving the student by

terminating the cultural programming at the elementary level. Specifically, was an emphasis on bilingual/bicultural programming, which had its primary emphasis only in the elementary grades, unconsciously informing the student that his language and culture were no longer meaningful parts of his education after the elementary period of his life? Were any early adjustments that the child may have made, unintentionally negated by adhering to a method that encouraged little carryover of native cultural values? Lastly, if these impressions were occurring, what could the district do to redress the situation?

In the spring of 1979, the entire junior high school population was surveyed. In conjunction with the junior high sampling, a questionnaire which included the major components of our present project, was randomly completed by the community. The returned data revealed that many students favored instruction in their culture at the secondary level; that courses in reading and writing the Navajo language were desired; and that parents favored having the district utilize their native language and cultural values more extensively. As one parent so concisely responded, "It's about them."

The Program

In the fall of 1979, the demonstration English project was begun at Ganado Junior High School.

The Project's direction is to better meet the cultural needs of the student and the community and to maintain high academic standards. To perform these, the traditional methods of teaching English are minimized. Emphasis, instead, is placed on the incorporation of Native-American Literature, Navajo culture, and an analysis of the student's present use of both his primary and secondary languages. All instruction is geared to augment English skills through existing cultural values. These skills are facilitated through the Project's philosophy that:

> There is a need for each child to be heard. A child will only learn to use a language if he has the opportunity to use the language. A child will learn to read a language if he finds meaning in that language. A child will learn to write a language if he finds that others find meaning in his work.

Working from these ideals, the classroom's climate and instruction was established. In order to give the students an opportunity to use English, daily classes are shifted from a teacher-dominated environment to a student-oriented setting. This is not to say that the students are allowed to do whatever they please. On the contrary, student activities are guided by a highly structured curriculum, which parallels the basic academic goals of the other, more traditional English classes offered at the junior high. However, it is the express purpose of the class to allow the students more opportunities to apply the skills and concepts that they learn and those that they already possess.

First, teacher lectures are purposely kept to a minimum. They are utilized only to introduce new concepts or to clarify assignments. Secondly, when concepts are covered which are facilitated by the utilization of traditional English curriculum materials, the quantity of seatwork to be completed, is cut

drastically. This was done because most traditional English curriculum activity books include exercises that are far too long to keep any student interested, regardless of his primary language. The emphasis is shifted from quantity to quality. This decreases student boredom and allows the class to move on more rapidly, with assignments more efficiently and effectively completed. Further, whenever possible, relevant native terms and situations are integrated into the seatwork assignments and this generates more student interest in the assignments. Finally, the majority of in-class time is used to promote student to student interactions; teacher to student interaction; and to encourage student to community interaction of the Project's assigned exercises. Students are encouraged to share ideas, to check each other's work, and to talk with and to glean ideas from the community's elders.

In most countries, it is assumed that becoming proficient in two or more languages is essential. Therefore, the Project attempts to build both languages and to stimulate further improvement in students who have this facility already. This type of language learning is essential to the Project's goals and one language is used to build the other. The Project utilizes native radio commercials and in the future plans to utilize video tapes of adults relating legends or stories in the students' primary language. Adapting each into English, provides opportunities for the student to increase his vocabulary development in both languages and facilitates his utilization of each culture's value system. Translating between the two language systems is not always practical but the student learns the limitations of each language, and that the meaning and the tone of the message is important rather than the literal translation. Therefore, each student arrives at his own variation of the message, but the primary purpose of the strategies is to motivate the student to express his ideas in English and to offer the student an opportunity to fuse both value systems.

To foster an increase of a student's motivation to read the English language, an emphasis is placed on the relevance of materials. Presently, there are many books written in English concerning the various sub-cultures and their values. In the race to develop the perfect English language program, these historically have been overlooked. Utilizing traditional English curriculum objectives, the project develops around non-traditional materials, such as Stories from the Long Walk Period, Coyote Stories, Grandfather Stories of the Navajo, and American Indian Tales and Legends.

All cultures have tales and legends that have endured throughout the centuries. These could not possibly have survived if they had no value to their cultural groups. Further, traditional literature skills can be taught through cultural literature just as readily as they can from "The Great American Novel," but keeping the student interested is the key. Therefore, the project compliments English language skill acquisition with the opportunity for the student to learn more about his own cultural heritage and his native values. In essence, then, the student is exposed to two courses, integrated into one, an English class and a Culture class, and in this day of more rigid allotment formulas this is an asset.

In order to encourage the students to view writing as a meaningful experience students are provided with an abundance of writing experiences.

Instead of ponderous essays on "How I Spent My Summer Vacation," students are encouraged to write about their heritage, their feelings and their family. If the student lacks an idea, he is encouraged to glean them from parents, relatives, or other community elders, since the primary goal of the writing assignments is to learn how to express ideas in the English language.

This behavior is reinforced through positive comments but more important to the student, his completed task is posted, typed, and published. These activities show the student that his accomplishments are important enough to have others see. Further, the student's creative works are never graded. Instead, students receive points for completed assignments. One of the Project's accomplishments is that the responsibility for the majority of the proofreading and the editing of the student's works for publication, has been accepted and is effectively being completed by the student and his peers.

Compare this to the traditional method where teachers feel compelled to cover the material, to get on with the business of teaching, perhaps forgetting that students need to apply the newly presented concepts. Too often, when traditional opportunities to write are presented, the materials prepared by the students are read, graded, and returned to the story. When asked by the student what he should do with the graded stories, the traditional reply is, "Do whatever you wish. Throw it away if you want." The student quickly realizes the message (e.g., that he is involved in a meaningless exercise). This type of frank message does not foster an atmosphere which encourages the student to write more. This, instead, leads to an extinction of the express behavior that the educator is attempting to foster and is therefore counterproductive.

Related Areas

High expectations are essential to the success of any project, but these must be accompanied by various opportunities for the students to experience success. Therefore, the Project is built on a success model, which encourages mastery of subject content rather than success on any number of assessments. Ample opportunity is given for the student to improve weaknesses and final grades are based on the movement towards criteria. Further, the emphasis is placed on students establishing short and long term goals for themselves, on the students taking responsibility for how they meet criteria, and thereby, on developing in the student the concept that grades are earned by them, rather than given by the teacher.

To prevent grades from being influenced by unevenly prepared tests, grading standards are set for each cluster of objectives. Further, each cluster of objectives is weighted to ensure uniformity of final grades. Finally, tests are matched against objectives. This ensures that what is tested is what was taught. In this process, planning is essential and realistic goals are established and verified. It must be remembered, that when the teaching/learning process breaks down, it may not be that the student has not learned. The breakdown may be that the method, content, or objectives do not complement each other.

Teachers have long been concerned that children may learn a skill one day and forget it after the exam and this is often true. However, if concepts and

skills are truly mastered, they will not be forgotten, since a concept that is forgotten immediately after it is acquired has not been learned. Continuous repetition that recycles skills is therefore essential. Further, in most classrooms, valuable instructional time is generally lost in the first and last five minutes of a class. Realistic examples are: taking attendance and getting ready for the bell to ring. Therefore, in the Project, several methods are employed to encourage long term memory, to provide students with a daily chance for success, and to maximize instructional time.

One such method, is the utilization of nonthreatening daily quizzes. The daily quiz, which emphasizes material previously covered is presented immediately at the beginning or at the end of a class period and it varies in length from thirty seconda to five minutes. This technique also provides the teacher with immediate daily feedback on the effectiveness of his teaching methods, while providing the student with immediate daily feedback on his progress, as well as developing an immediate positive working atmosphere, since students are required to begin the quiz immediately after the first bell. Finally, during the daily quizzes, students are encouraged to talk to each other and to ask their peers for answers that they do not know. This helps the student who may not know a response but it also aids his peers, since they are learning by teaching. The only occasion when this is not encouraged is on cumulative exams.

It was already mentioned that the Project was developed around non-traditional materials. These materials generate the vocabulary which is an integral part of the class goals. Quality of learning rather than quantity is again stressed. Beginning with lists that were too long, vocabulary lessons are now purposely kept to 12 words a week and to make the lists more readily learned, the "chunking" method is utilized. In this method, the students are encouraged to learn the first six words for the first quiz and the second six for the next quiz. In future quizzes, the words are selected and recycled randomly among accumulated lists.

Applying vocabulary is vital to its meaningful acquisition. Students must have the opportunity to use the vocabulary. Therefore, grammar skills development and reading exercises are planned to provide for plenty of student experience time. Further, the use of vocabulary by the students in meaningful sentences is essential and therefore is encouraged in the student's creative works.

An additional goal of the Ganado project is reading fluency. When the student is assigned to read a complete story, he immediately closes his book and writes what he has comprehended. By not interrupting the student during his reading, reading fluency is encouraged, and by reading the student's reports, comprehension is easily checked. Fluency is the goal and by not interrupting the student in the middle of a passage for grammatical corrections, he is not as likely to lose track of the story line. Hence, a deliberate attempt is made to separate the comprehension from grammar and related skills development. Lastly, grammar skills are refined by the utilization of the "error-life" method in daily quizzes. In this process, common student errors in their writing assignments are actually pulled and reproduced for class direction.

Conclusion

The Ganado Junior High School's Demonstration English Project is an attempt to improve the district's ability to meet the needs of the secondary Navajo student and his community in the area of bilingual and bicultural development. However, the validity of the Project may be argued by experts for years. Certainly, this pilot project has had to be modified and adjusted and has encountered its share of difficulties. At the same time, one must question, who the experts are in this situation, if they are not the students, the parents, and the staff in the Ganado community.

All the results are not in, but on the midsemester evaluation this is what some students had to say: a) "I think this class is good because you don't forget about your Navajo ways of living...;" b) "I think taking this class is magnificent. I learned a lot from this class and I think it is better than any other English classes, because in the English classes, we don't learn this many vocabulary words;" c) "You learn more about what Navajo really means;" d) "I think that in this class, we learn more in this class because we don't have to go over the same boring things like in a regular English class, and we learn more about our heritage;" 3) "We have an opportunity to work with other students. It's better than most English classes;" f) "They are good books to read, but I would like to read more. They're funny, serious, and tell us a good deal we need to know;" g) "The books we use are fantastic;" h) "I'm proud of the books that we made because it helps other people to be proud of us, that we are Navajos. My parents like reading our books that we made;" i) "The books we write are great. The books mean a lot to me (us);" j) "I like to translate the Navajo commercials;" k) "I think we should also start reading on our own language too. It's time we all learned;" l) "We could have more vocabulary words if the students are willing to;" m) "I'll tell kids to take this class instead of modern English but it's still the same, only it's more about Navajo and we made stories that will be printed and published in real books. And to know more words or vocabulary words than modern English. I'll tell kids to come to this class. It makes you more intelligent;" n) "Other kids would want to learn these kind of words and write stories and make books;" and o) "If I had a choice, I'd tell the other kids to take that class because I think they'll like it."

As for the parents, the Project receives requests from them to check out the classroom texts. And as one parent responded on a skill report, "Very wonderful. I feel so thankful for what she (my daughter) is able to accomplish in Native American Literature. Hope she continues."

Lastly, as for the other teachers, the infection has spread. Many have begun to integrate the Project's published works into their classes and no less than 10 volumes of similar creative publications have already been generated by other classes throughout the school system.

As the world continues to shrink, the need for the non-native English speaker to communicate with the environment increases. The Ganado Demonstration Project is one attempt to meet these needs. To date, the Project's participants have reproduced three volumes of their work. Enrollment in the Project is

increasing and community support is becoming more pronounced. Students seem to be more comfortable with the bilingual/bicultural environment and desire to participate more in the fusing of previously learned concepts with presently learned values.

Values are the bases of all communication and all students have numerous values that need to be communicated. The Project's success indicates that values can be fused in such a manner that all participants can comprehend. Educators must respond to the experiences that their students have encountered. Possibly the most efficient way to energize the curriculum is by bringing relevance into the classroom and by allowing students to actively participate in their education.

Chapter 7

Inservice Teacher Education on the Navajo Reservation

Robert A. Mortenson
Roger Wilson

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A national study, commissioned in 1926 and known as the Meriam Report, was established to analyze Federal Indian Policies along with the recommendation of possible changes (3). At the time of completion, in 1928, it was considered to be the most significant social research attempt ever conducted in the field of Indian affairs. Highlighted in the Meriam Report were two serious deficiencies regarding Indian affairs. The first was that Indians were excluded from management of their own affairs, and second, Indians were receiving poor quality services (especially health and educational) from public officials who were supposed to be serving their needs.

Forty years later, a Senate Subcommittee (headed by Senator Robert F. Kennedy, D-N.Y.), studying the education of Indian children concluded similar findings. This replication of findings indicates that significant changes have not been implemented to alleviate the existing deficiencies.

According to the report Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, "The most fundamental need in Indian Education is a change in the point of view" (2). Under 95-561, a crucial factor today in upgrading the quality of education received by Native American students, particularly in a reservation setting, is changing teacher pre-service and consequent inservice education. As integral components of the curricula process, pre-service and inservice education, directed at instructional staff, are effective communicators and facilitators of community dominant values. As one avenue for community input, both pre-service and inservice can not be effectively separated from the curricula and, in turn, from the needs assessment.

This above premise is the basic impetus for the grant generated by the Educational Research and Development Center at Northern Arizona University through the United States Office of Education. The two principal host agencies are Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona, the institution of higher education and the Leupp Bureau of Indian Affairs Boarding School, Leupp, Arizona, acting as the local education agency.

Within this arrangement, Northern Arizona University offered four basic educational services to the Leupp Boarding School. These services are described below:

A. Graduate Pre-service Training...four Teacher Corps Interns pursuing a Master's Degree in a pilot program in Elementary Education with a Bilingual/Multicultural area of emphasis.
B. Undergraduate Training for Para-professionals...five Teacher Corps volunteers pursuing a Bachelor's Degree program in Elementary Education also having a Bilingual/Multicultural area of emphasis.
C. Inservice Training...consisting of extension courses, workshops and similar activities for the teaching and guidance staff at the Leupp Boarding School offered by Northern Arizona University.
D. The provision for consultant efforts...as indicated by on-going needs assessment at the local educational agency.

Four graduate and five undergraduate interns were trained with a focus on community-based teacher training with a bilingual/multicultural emphasis. Upon completion of their courses, the interns were certified by the State of Arizona in the area of elementary education and were prepared to teach in a reservation setting.

At present, there is a concerted effort by the College of Education at Northern Arizona University to develop a pilot Master of Arts degree program to meet the unique needs of the reservation setting. The existing Elementary Education Master of Arts degree format was used as a paradigm. Both Navajo language and culture were included as additional major facets of the graduate training. The Teacher Corps at Northern Arizona University provided a catalyst to encourage the university to broaden its program of teacher education and to further aid the university and local educational agency in improving their programs of training and inservice education for both professional and para-professional staff.

The objectives for the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project were synthesized into a simple thrust for the project. This thrust is stated below:

> Demonstrate the effectiveness of an interdisciplinary approach to the development and implementation of a bilingual/bicultural training and retraining program for educators who will be cognizant of and responsive to the unique educational needs of the bilingual child.

This challenge transcends the three major components of the project: namely, the institution of higher education, the Leupp Boarding School , and the community served by the school district. The objectives associated with each component rely heavily upon the utilization of concepts associated with inservice education and/or continuing education.

Whenever inservice education is planned, certain factors exist that affect the effectiveness of the program. First, teacher educators have long been concerned with the individual differences among children and how they learn and grow. The same concern needs to permeate the education teachers receive prior to and during the time they interact with children in a classroom. Hence, inservice teacher education programs must be individualized and assist teachers in developing in their own unique ways and learning styles.

A second variable affecting inservice teacher education is the change in the control of the entire enterprise. Historically, control of inservice teacher education had been virtually under the exclusive jurisdiction of institutions of higher education. Currently, joint governance of inservice teacher education is evolving that includes teacher organizations, state departments of education, institutions of higher education, local school districts, and community representatives. As inservice teacher education has grown in complexity and as control has shifted, no one single group has been able to completely take over and deliver significant programs that meet the needs of the unique learners. Inservice teacher education is too intricate for one group to control the resources necessary to provide solutions and programs. Therefore, it is essential to embark upon collaborative ventures designed to achieve maximum results.

A third group of variables associated with inservice teacher education are Governance, Modes, Delivery, and Substance. These dimensions are discussed in the Inservice Teacher Education Report I: Issues to Face (1). Governance is concerned with collaborative efforts among the various persons, agencies, and institutions involved with the inservice teacher education effort. The three levels of Governance are: 1) the authority to create and maintain an inservice unit or center, 2) the authority to govern a center, and 3) the governance of the individual teacher's relationship to a unit or center.

The modal dimension involves the variety of ways in which continuing education exists. These modes are: 1) job-embedded, 2) job-related, 3) credential-oriented, 4) professional organization-oriented, and 5) self-directed. These modes allow a teacher to be viewed respectively as: 1) an employee of a school, 2) a colleague of other teachers, 3) a student of higher education, 4) a member of a profession, and 5) an individual craftsman.

The Delivery dimension involves delivering training where people can get it, in accordance with their needs, and providing long range follow through. The Delivery dimension has three major factors according to the report: 1) incentives, 2) interface, and 3) staff.

The Substantive dimension refers both to the substance of training and the process used to deliver the content. The substance must be relevant to the needs of classroom teachers. The teaching processes identified for teacher training and for working with children are: 1) social interaction, 2) information processing, 3) personalistic, and 4) behavior modification. New content needs as a result of social change and fresh conceptions will need to be addressed by continuing inservice teacher education. These needs include: 1) multicultural education, 2) education of the handicapped, and 3) early childhood education.

The effectiveness of the inservice teacher education venture depends upon the ability of those involved to arrange collaboratively the interaction of the Governance, Modal, Delivery, and Substantive dimensions in a productive manner. This arrangement is, in fact, a very delicate one. Weakness in one dimension is magnified because it undermines the power of the other dimensions. Conversely, improvement in only one dimension alone usually does not significantly improve the overall quality of continuing education. Change must be made simultaneously in all dimensions for improvement to occur.

The following describes the efforts of the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project as they pertain to the four major dimensions of inservice education. Namely, these dimensions are Governance, Modes, Delivery, and Substantive.

The three levels of governance for the Navajo are graphically depicted below:

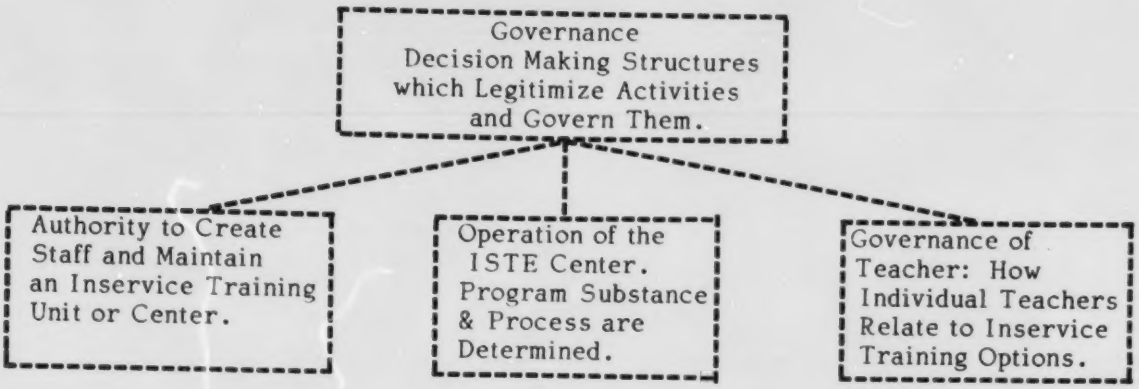
Governance
Decision Making Structures which Legitimize Activities and Govern Them.
Authority to Create Staff and Maintain an Inservice Training Unit or Center.
Operation of the ISTE Center. Program Substance & Process are Determined.
Governance of Teacher: How Individual Teachers Relate to Inservice Training Options.

Figure 1

Governance Dimension of Inservice Education

Authority to create and maintain. The Bureau of Indian Affairs Leupp Boarding School served the Navajo population surrounding Flagstaff, Arizona. It also served as the training complex for the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project. In conjunction with Northern Arizona University, the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project created, maintained, and staffed several inservice programs for the Leupp Boarding School.

Operation of the ISTE. The Bureau of Indian Affairs delegated some responsibility for the operation of Leupp School as an inservice teacher education center for the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project. The Teacher Corps project maintained office space at the school for a Team Leader and an Inservice Coordinator. These professionals worked with interns, staff, administrators and university faculty.

Governance of the individual teacher. All teachers were under the authority of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Much of the responsibility to govern teachers with respect for inservice training was delegated to the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project and Northern Arizona University. The arrangement was extremely workable resulting in both vertical and horizontal communication.

The modes were the envelopes in which inservice teacher education was delivered by the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project at Leupp School. Figure 2 graphically displays the five subcategories of the modal dimension. These categories are: 1) job-embedded, 2) job-related, 3) credential-related, 4) professional organization related, and 5) self directed.

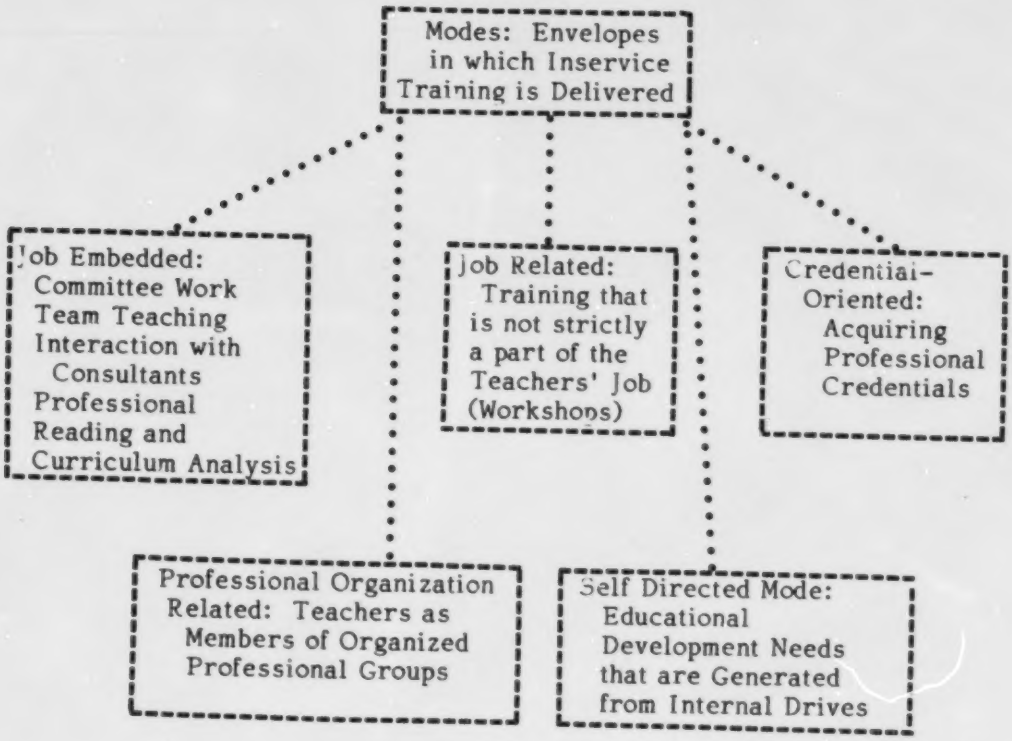
Modes: Envelopes in which Inservice Training is Delivered
Job Embedded: Committee Work Team Teaching Interaction with Consultants Professional Reading and Curriculum Analysis
Job Related: Training that is not strictly a part of the Teachers' Job (Workshops)
Credential-Oriented: Acquiring Professional Credentials
Professional Organization Related: Teachers as Members of Organized Professional Groups
Self Directed Mode: Educational Development Needs that are Generated from Internal Drives

Figure 2

Modes of Inservice Education

Job embedded mode. As an employee of Leupp School, teachers, administrators and para-professionals they were strongly involved in committee participation for planning and organization. Most of the following school committees were a product of an inservice course:

a) Music
b) Attendance
c) Social
d) Field Trips
e) Curriculum Development
f) Academic Awards
g) Library
h) Graduation
i) Special Events

Other committees were established in recognition of educational needs:

a) Navajo Language Curriculum Development Committee
b) Multiculture Implementation Committee
c) Special Education Implementation Committee
d) Continuous Uniform Evaluation System Committee
e) Navajo Social Studies Committee

Job related mode. Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project provided inservice training that could not be considered a direct part of the teachers' job. Most of the job related inservice teacher education occurred in the form of workshops. These training activities are listed below:

a) Multicultural Workshop
b) Navajo Music Workshop
c) Special Education Workshop
d) Inservice Workshop
e) Science Workshop
f) Learning Disability Workshop

Credential related mode. The most familiar mode of inservice teacher education was the credential oriented mode. Sixty-six percent of the para-professionals at Leupp School took inservice work to earn credit toward a bachelor degree in elementary education. Several community members were enrolled with the para-professionals to pursue academic credit. However, the community members had to finance their own education. Three graduate students applied inservice work toward their Masters Degrees with bilingual, multicultural emphasis. All three completed requirements for the degree.

Professional organization related mode. Like teachers and staff members in other schools, Leupp educators were affiliated with a wide variety of organizations:

a) National Education Association
b) Arizona Education Association
c) Arizona Bilingual Council
d) Federal Employees Association
e) International Reading Association
f) National Council of the Bureau of Indian Affairs Educators

The staff at Leupp took advantage of journals, regional, and national conferences and workshops to improve their teaching skills. They also utilized this medium to become aware of new techniques.

Self directed mode. In many cases teachers at Leupp School developed educational tools without external reward or structure. As a result of a multicultural conference many teachers developed and implemented individual

curriculum plans. New games designed to facilitate the learning of mathematic concepts were developed in response to a need. Language experience stories as a means of learning English also emerged along with native foods teaching units.

Delivery

The delivery dimension involved the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project providing training where the people can get it. Figure 3 displays the three factors in the delivery dimension which are: 1) incentives, 2) interface, and 3) staff.

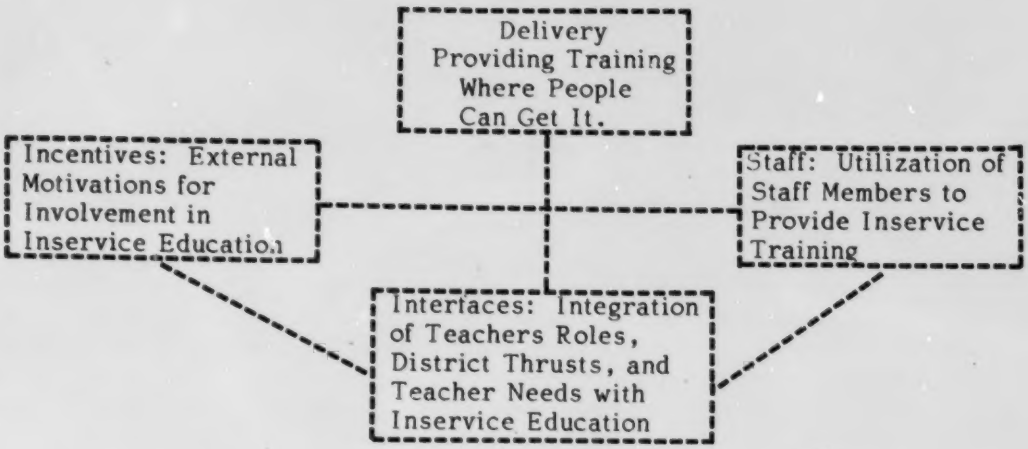

Figure 3

Delivery Dimension of Inservice Education

Incentives of delivery. Incentives contributed to the willingness to participate in inservice programs and in many cases caused participation. Leupp teachers were given course credit toward professional advancement and salary advancement. They were given stipends to cover educational costs, and occasionally travel was utilized as an incentive.

Interfaces of delivery. Interfacing was the consideration of several factors for delivering inservice training programs. Those factors were:

a) The roles of the teacher in the classroom
b) The thrusts of the Leupp School
c) The individual needs of the teacher

Figure 4 displays an example of interfacing inservice education at Leupp School:

Figure 4

Interfaced Delivery Mode of Inservice Education

The interfacing approach is also in operation for other areas at Leupp School. Those areas are: 1) special education needs, and 2) reading education needs.

Staffing of delivery. Historically the delivery of inservice education was done by members of the institution for higher education. The Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project successfully made use of Northern Arizona University staff to deliver inservice education to Leupp School.

Along with the traditional inservice delivery from the institution of higher education, Leupp School utilized local expertise to provide inservice training. One teacher attended a multicultural workshop in Portland, Oregon. Upon her return she conducted a similar workshop for the Leupp staff members. A staff member attended a special education workshop. At a later date, that staff member conducted a similar workshop on mainstreaming at Leupp School. A similar occurrence followed a reading conference.

Substantive

The substantive dimension of inservice education refers to the content of the training along with the process utilized to transmit it. Content is not a static entity. As society changes the content of inservice needs also change. The Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project instituted inservice training at the Leupp Boarding School in the following areas in response to changes in societal needs:

TABLE 1
PROCESS/CONTENT MATRIX

	SOCIAL INTERACTION Improvement of individual's ability to relate to others	INFORMATION PROCESSING Information processing capability of the student and systems by which the student can improve this capability	PERSONALISTIC Person's internal organization as it affects relationships with others.	BEHAVIOR MOD. Changing student external behavior
ESE 380 Intro to the Exceptional Child		X	X	X
ECI 599 Multicultural Workshop	X		X	
Navajo Code Talkers	X			
The Changing Woman (film)	X		X	
***	***	***	***	***
Multicultural Fair	X			
Inservice Committee	X	X		
Metropolitan Achievement Test		X	X	X
Cultural Information for New Teachers	X		X	
***	***	***	***	***
ECI 599 English Program Instruction		X		X
HUM 599 Recent Cultural Trends in Humanities	X		X	X
ECI 642 Modern Language Arts Instruction		X		X
ECI 644 Modern Elementary Social Studies		X		X
***	***	***	***	***
PHS 335 Physics of Toys		X		
Bibliography of Navajo Books	X		X	
Visitation to Rock Point	X			
PL 94-142	X	X		
***	***	***	***	***
Indian Leaders in American History		X		
Navajo Music Workshop	X		X	
Navtive Cooking	X		X	
Arizona Bilingual Conference	X	X	X	X
***	***	***	***	***
Special Education Workshop		X	X	X
Inservice Workshop, Las Vegas	X	X		
Science Workshop		X	X	

a) Multicultural Workshops
b) Special Education Workshops (Mainstreaming)
c) New Techniques of Teaching Reading

The processes associated with the substantive dimension of inservice education were categorized into four approaches. The Process/Content Matrix graphically illustrates the relationship between process (how teaching is done) and content (what is taught). The four processes are displayed horizontally across the top of the matrix and the content offerings are displayed vertically along the left side of the matrix. Each "x" represents a common point between process and content.

The results of the matrix indicate that the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project distributed the content of inservice programs across the four processes. The distribution also indicates that all areas are emphasized with approximately the same frequency showing a stable and inclusive substantive dimension of inservice education.

Summary

The Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project and Leupp School employed inservice teacher education strategies that were consistent with the inservice model created by Joyce and others. As the preceding sections indicate, the project addressed the four major dimensions of inservice teacher education along with their respective sub-parts.

Within the efforts of the inservice teacher education thrust of the Navajo Teacher Corps Demonstration Project the specific objectives of the project have been either met or exceeded. This method for the analysis and synthesis of inservice teacher education efforts has been based upon recent research in the area and presents the reader with an organized and structured overview of the project.

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Chapter 8

Financial Planning Under P.L. 95-561

Sam W. Bliss

The methods and structure of financial planning for the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools is mandated by various sections of P.L. 95-561. This prescribed procedure is designed to provide for the fiscal accountability of public funds. Also, it is required in order to communicate and inform persons interested in the welfare and operation of the schools. Financial planning occurs during the budgeting process.

Educational budgets present plans, objectives, and programs of the organization and expresses them in numerical terms. The making of a budget is strictly a planning function. However, the administration of the budget (budgetary control) is a controlling function. Budgets are the pre-established standards to which operations are compared and adjusted by the exercise of control. A budget is a means of control because it reflects the progress of actual performance against the plan and in so doing provides the information which enables the manager to take action if necessary to make results conform with the plan.

Budgeting refers to budget planning and preparation, to the making of a plan which covers all phases of operations for a definite period in the future. It is a formal expression of objectives laid down in advance by top management for the entire organization. The result of budget planning is an overall budget (master budget) for the organization as a whole made up by a number of sub-budgets (subsidiary budget) representing departmental and division budgets. All of these budgets are to be used as a guide for the period projected.

One of the most serious shortcomings of budgeting is the danger of inflexibility. Although budgets are plans expressed in numerical terms, the manager should not be led to believe that these figures are final and unalterable. Budget plans may become obsolete very soon after they have been made, and if the manager is expected to stay within them in spite of new events, then budgets become strait jackets and lose their usefulness. The budget and budgetary control is merely a means to an end and must not be permitted to become an end in itself.

The Regulations Related to Financial Planning

Section 1129 of P.L. 95-561 requires the development of a financial management planning system for BIA operated and funded schools. In the Federal Register, Friday, October 26, 1979, Indian School Equalization Program, Subpart E--Local Education Financial Plan, the BIA operated and funded schools are required to develop local educational financial plans. In Subpart E the

basic requirements are set forth:

1. Definitions
2. Development of local educational financial plans
3. Minimum requirements
4. Procedures for the development of the plan
5. Procedures for financial plan appeals

In the Educational Specifications (Draft) document under Part IV Standards for section 1.0.0.0 Administrative Services the seventh service area relates to Finance, Budget, and Procurement. The Management Service part is as follows:

1.7.0.0 MANAGEMENT SERVICES

Statement of Principle: The school shall provide adequate and timely management services and materials needed to accomplish the school's purposes.

1.7.1.0 FINANCE, BUDGET AND PROCUREMENT

1.7.1.1 Local financial plans, budgetary, and fiscal management systems shall be in accordance with established accounting procedures.

1.7.1.2 Sufficient budgetary resources shall be provided annually to insure that the school can meet or exceed the required minimum standards.

1.7.1.3 The school accounts shall be audited annually by a certified accountant.

1.7.1.4 It shall be the responsibility of the local school supervisor to maintain financial controls and records.

1.7.1.5 Funds shall be expended according to a local financial plan developed by the local school supervisor in active consultation with the local school board.

1.7.1.6 Each local school supervisor and agency school superintendent shall have delegated procurement authority.

1.7.1.7 Adequate and appropriate teaching/learning materials and equipment for each area of the school's program shall be provided in the amount and types needed to accomplish the stated instructional objectives.

1.7.1.8 Laboratories (science and home economics), physical education stations and shops shall be adequately supplied with equipment sufficiently modern and usable to effect sound instructional/learning programs in these areas.

During August of 1979, the BIA distributed an interim Financial Planning Guideline which was to be followed by local BIA operated and funded schools. There are nine major sections in the interim guideline. They relate to the following aspects of financial planning:

1. Education Programs
2. General Provisions
3. Position List
4. Equipment Plan
5. Reimbursement Projection Exhibit
6. Program Budget Summary and Quarterly Apportionment Schedule
7. Preparation of the Financial Plan
8. Standard Operating Procedures for Encoding Financial Plans
9. Responsible Fiscal Agent

The law and the subsequent documents firmly establish the need for development of financial plans by the BIA operated local schools. In addition procedures have been provided in financial planning guidelines. The guidelines specify that a program-oriented system be used as the basic structure for the financial planning. A time table for the financial planning is provided in the Interim Financial Planning Guidelines. The time table is contained on the following pages.

The local BIA school administrators have been provided the authority to engage in financial planning by P.L. 95-561. Also, a number of support type implementation documents have been prepared to assist the school administrators in performing their financial planning.

Program-Oriented Planning

Program-oriented planning became most prominent during the 1960's and 1970's.

Emerging in the 1960's and continuing through the 1970's was an identifiable movement to bring together the separate management procedures of government and industry into a single general management tool. Growing out of post World War II era government planners, operation researchers, and systems analysts sought to combine their different interests and technologies into a common system which would assist them in dealing with the existing and future problems of society. The Planning Programming Budgeting System (PPBS) was and is still being advocated as a system of thought which will provide governmental institutions with such a management tool. Although the basic concepts and processes of a PPBS evolved slowly and separately, their applications were generally developed as a whole system in the federal government, especially the Department of Defense (DOD). The PPBS innovations which began in the DOD under Hitch in the Kennedy administration were extended by President Johnson to all agencies of the federal government, even those with social objectives. An often quoted 1965 Johnson executive directive drew attention to the PPBS which was supposed to significantly improve the government's ability to plan for an effective and efficient use of public resources. This executive directive has had specific effects on state and local governments, college and universities and education in general. It generated large scale

Planning, Programming and Budgeting Cycle

FY 1980

Target/Deadline Date	Action	Responsibility
Aug. & Sept., 1979	Financial Planning Workshops	Area Directors
Sept. 5, 1979	Final action on financial plan	School Board/ Agency/Area Office
1st week October	Notification of first quarterly apportionment	Financial Management
Oct. 1 or 30 days after Appro. rec'd by BIA	Initial allotments	Financial Management
Oct.-Nov.	Student counts (ADM) for final entitlements	Director
1st wk. Jan. 1980	Notification of 2nd quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Financial Management
Jan. 20, 1980	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
Feb. & March	Student counts (ADM)	Director
1st wk. April	Notification of final quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Financial Management
April 20	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
1st week July	Notification of final quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Financial Management
July 20, 1980	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
Nov. 1, 1980	Final quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent

Planning, Programming and Budgeting Cycle

FY 1981

Target/Deadline Date	Action	Responsibility
Feb./March, 1979	Development of projected student counts (ADM)	Local School Supervisor
May 15	Development of Program Strategy Paper (PSP)	Director
June 15	PSP due in Department	Assistant Secretary
July 31	Target allowances to BIA	Department
September 15	Budget Estimates to OMB	Director/Commissioner
Oct. 1-Dec. 25	OMB Hearings & Appeals Process	OMB
Jan. 15, 1980	Budget Justifications to Congress	Director/Commissioner
Jan. 15	President's Budget to Congress	Director/Commissioner
March 15	Notification to schools of details of President's Budget	Director/Commissioner
April	Notification of tentative allotments	Director
May	Present draft financial plan to school board	Local School Supervisor
July	Final action on financial plan	Local School Board
July	Appeal of Local School Board decisions on Financial Plan	Local School Supervisor
August	Review of appeal documents and notification of hearing date	Agency Superintendent of Education
1st week October	Notification of 1st quarterly apportionment	Director/Financial Management
Oct. 1 or 30 days after Appro. rec'd by BIA	Initial allotments	Director/Financial Management
Oct.-Nov.	Student counts (ADM) for final allotments	Director
1st wk January, '81	Notification of 2nd quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Director/Financial Management

January 20	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
Feb. & March	Student Counts (ADM)	Director
1st week April	Notification of 3rd quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Director/Financial Management
April 20	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
1st week July	Notification of final quarterly apportionment and adjustment of allotment	Director/Financial Management
July 20	Quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent
Nov. 1, 1981	Final quarterly report to school board on financial plan	Local School Supervisor Local Responsible Fiscal Agent

research and development efforts in many levels of government throughout this nation. The 1968 federal budget was the first one presented in a PPBS format.

Although PPBS is a management tool utilized in the government, the technique has also had a significant impact on business and industry since many rely heavily on government contracts and their proposals must follow the general format required by the government. However, of primary importance is that PPBS as a management tool can be applied to any organization whether it is a governmental institution, educational agency, or business and industry.

As stated previously, the probable beginning of the modern attempts to integrate the movements in budgetary practice, management science, and computer technology was in the 1950's. The RAND Corporation was partially influential during this time in that they translated the performance budget recommended by the Hoover Commission into a new preliminary framework for "program budgeting." New literature on "program budgeting" emerged, but for the most part this literature was largely concerned with non-educational subjects. Even though the literature made it clear that concepts of PPBS in non-educational areas could not be applied easily to educational areas, it did make important contributions to the growing field of PPBS.

Within the 1970's many articles have been written on the value of PPBS for education. Usually, these publications have been general writings on the basic concepts of the technique and do not address the more technical questions relating to the methodology of applying PPBS to education. It should be noted that the literature on PPBS in education is still in its very early and developmental stages. Yet, there is a growing body of literature which certainly should be helpful to the student of PPBS.

Planning and Decisioning in the Private and Public Sectors

In the private sector of the economy, decisions are usually fairly rational and thus are made with reasonable ease:

1. The consumer(s) attempt to maximize their needs or satisfaction (utility) by spending their limited dollars (a resource) for those things which produce greatest satisfaction.
2. Business and industry attempts to maximize their profits by adjusting their output and prices to satisfy the wants of the consumer(s).
3. The combined interaction of the public maximizing satisfaction and businesses maximizing profits tend to answer the basic problems of any economic system by determining:
   a. What will be produced?
   b. How will it be produced?
   c. For whom will it be produced?

In the public sector our economic system operates quite differently.

1. There are no profits to maximize.
2. Consumer satisfaction is difficult to measure.

3. There is no price system available to allocate public services, if there was then public sector policy and decisions could be greatly simplified. However, it is not often feasible or even desirable to use the price and/or benefit system to allocate public goods or services because:

   a. For collective services or goods the price system isn't acceptable by the public.
   b. For some kinds of public services (fire and police protection) a price system is possible but not practical.
   c. For other types of public serviced (education) a price system is possible but, as yet, not socially desirable. (The voucher system resembles an effort to move in this direction.)
   d. In areas of high risk (national defense, space exploration, medical research, etc.) the price system will not function.
   e. In other areas of high social costs the price system may lead to undesirable results (social security and medical care for the aged).

4. If one agrees that the price system cannot operate effectively and/or is not desirable in the public sector, then governments must develop some other system which will facilitate rational policy and decision making. The search for such a system has brought about a gradual evolution to the system we are presenting at this clinic. The PPBS system was designed for this purpose. It is the result of years of systems growth in government and represents the best thinking of our times. No doubt future years will bring about further refinement and better systems, no matter how they are labeled. Basically, PPBS is a concept establishing a "way of planning and decisioning" in the public sector and is founded upon the principles that:

   a. Governmental institutions are concerned with the achievement of broad goals which are established within the context of the society it was created to serve.
   b. Social resources are limited.
   c. There are a large number of choices to be made at the various levels of authority and responsibility.
   d. It is possible to view government operations as a method of providing products needed by society within the framework of a market system.

PPBS as a useful planning and decisioning system did not receive wide implementation in school systems of the United States. This was basically because of its complexity and long implementation time requirements.

In 1969 another planning and decisioning system was being created in a private business. The system was titled Zero-Base Budgeting. The creator was an executive of the Texas Instruments Corporation by the name of Peter Pyhrr.

Zero-Base Budgeting

Zero-Base Budgeting (ZBB) is the latest management system useful for educational financial planning. ZBB is currently being implemented by a number of governments and local school institutions.

Many factors indicate that schools are becoming much more difficult to manage. Some of these signs are declining enrollments, increasing complexity of composition, collective bargaining, public concern over rising costs, parent and student disenchantment with the lack of relevancy of some educational programs, and a recognition by school administrators of the increasing uncertainty in the planning and decision-making process. If this trend continues, which seems likely, management of school districts is not going to improve without improved management skills and tools.

Improved management does not necessarily mean less expenditure, either in the management process or in the functions which management seeks to control. Improved and better management should strive to obtain a more acceptable ratio between resource use and effectiveness or benefit. Thus, the question school administrators face today is: How can we best use the resources available to bring about a more desirable ratio between cost and effectiveness or benefit?

Management systems can be very simple and also quite complex. They can be used manually or they can be utilized in conjunction with third generation computers. The wise school administrator when considering the implementation of a management tool for his organization, will identify and examine fully the benefits to be received in relationship to the cost of its development and installation. Continual consideration must be given to the investment and operational costs of introducing a new and different management tool in the institution. There must exist a practical and reasonable cost relationship between "price" of the tool and its benefits to the school district.

Improved educational planning and decisions depend largely upon better identification and analysis of potential programs and the information related to them. Zero-base budgeting does provide for the display of the organization's programs through the development of decision packages. Also, information contained in a decision package can be quite useful in the planning and decision process.

The installation of a new management system such as zero-base budgeting requires a large amount of communication between the developers of the tool and the tool's users. Considerable effort must must be expended to assist users to understand the tool's terminology, technical concepts, and operational procedures. Zero-base budgeting places heavy emphasis upon analysis which will require school administrators to become more knowledgeable about the analytical process. Therefore, training programs specifically designed to assist the users to more fully understand the tool and to reduce the communication gap between the developers and the users must be given high priority before and during the implementation of the tool.

Management systems/tools for the public schools had their beginning in the late 1960's and early 1970's. The Educational Resources Management System

(ERMS) developed by the Research Corporation, Association of School Business Officials is one excellent example. ERMS was an adaptation of the Planning Programming Budgeting System used by business and government to the elementary and secondary schools. The application of zero-base budgeting by industry and government cannot be made directly to local educational agencies. The output or products of the public schools as well as the complex interrelationships of educational programs requires that specific modifications occur in zero-base budgeting prior to its implementation in an educational setting.

Currently there is widespread interest in zero-base budgeting among school business administrators. This interest is due partly to the search for better management tools. Added stimulus is being provided by the fact that zero-base budgeting is being installed in the federal government. President Carter on February 14, 1977 issued a memorandum for the Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies in which he requested them to implement zero-base budgeting in their divisions. Key parts of the memorandum are given below:

> During the campaign, I pledged that immediately after the inauguration I would issue an order establishing zero-base budgeting throughout the Federal Government. This pledge was made because of the success of the zero-base budget system adopted by the State of Georgia under my direction as Governor.
>
> A zero-base budgeting system permits a detailed analysis and justification of budget requests by an evaluation of the importance of each operation performed.
>
> An effective zero-base budgeting system will benefit the Federal Government in several ways. It will:
>
> Focus the budget process on a comprehensive analysis of objectives and needs.
> Combine planning and budgeting into a single process.
> Cause managers to evaluate in detail the cost-effectiveness of their operation.
> Expand management participation in planning and budgeting at all levels of the Federal Government.
>
> I ask each of you to develop a zero-base system within your agency in accordance with instructions to be issued by the Office of Management and Budget. The Fiscal Year 1979 budget will be prepared using this system.
>
> By working together under a zero-base budgeting system, we can reduce costs and make the Federal Govermnent more efficient and effective...

Historical Background

Zero-base budgeting was first developed and introduced in business by Peter A. Pyhrr in 1969. Pyhrr was the Manager, Staff Control, at Texas Instruments, Inc., Dallas, Texas. From this beginning zero-base budgeting

spread to many other businesses. Also, some State Governments and the Federal Government are utilizing zero-base budgeting. The first state government to use zero-base budgeting was Georgia in 1973 under the administration of Governor Carter. Senator Muskie introduced The Government Economy and Spending Reform Act of 1976 (S. 2925) in Congress, which required a congressional zero-base review and evaluation of every governmental authorization for program and activities every five years. This Act (S.2925) also required the Director of the Office of Management and Budget to develop a program for zero-base budgeting in all departments and agencies of the Executive Branch.

School districts are now beginning the use of zero-base budgeting. There is an ever increasing usage of zero-base budgeting by industry, public utilities and governmental agencies. Thus, it seems reasonable to expect in the future a greater utilization of zero-base budgeting by educational institutions.

The Characteristics of Zero-Base Budgeting

The primary concept of zero-base budgeting is that all managers will reassess their programs from the foundation up and provide justification for all resources requested for the attainment of the organization's goals. This concept implies that major changes may occur in program and also in the allocation of resources to the desired programs from one budget period to the next budget period.

The zero-base budgeting process is applicable to all programs and cost centers of an organization. A program or cost center is subject to zero-base budgeting when there exists a cost effective relationship. Cost effectiveness is basically an analysis of the program's objectives in terms of the resource cost required to achieve the program's stated objectives. The resource cost of a program and its alternatives are expressed in dollars. The program's measures of effectiveness are stated in quantitative and/or qualitative terms. Cost effectiveness analysis is accomplished by dividing the program's effectiveness measures by its dollar costs. The result is an index that indicates the ratio of program costs to program effectiveness. When cost effectiveness indexes are obtained for each program alternative, decisionmakers will have been provided with the opportunity to identify the program alternative that offers the least cost for the desired effectiveness.

Cost effectiveness analysis is a useful process for assisting administrators to analyze decision packages and their alternatives. Also, the results of cost effectiveness analysis (cost index--ratio of cost to effectiveness) may be used to assist in the ranking of decision packages in a priority order with all other decision packages in the organization's divisions.

In school districts zero-base budgeting can be applied to administrative, instructional and support functions at all levels and including state and federally funded projects. Thus, zero-base budgeting can lead to the reassessment of programs and cost effectiveness analysis between programs in order to obtain the most desired relationship of objective achievement and the use of the district's resources.

In industry, when an activity cannot be justified in terms of its objectives and costs, it is usually terminated. In education, the termination of programs is not always possible because of local policy, state or federal law. For these kinds of programs the planners and decision-makers might use zero-base budgeting to obtain a higher degree of objective achievement with a more reasonable use of resources.

Zero-base budgeting seems to imply that all programs should be assessed and their costs justified each year. Although some educational programs may be analyzed yearly, other programs may be subjected to review over longer periods of time. New programs may be analyzed each year for several years in a row. Other programs that are required year after year can be assessed every other year or every third or fifth year. Also, educational programs with objectives that cannot be achieved in a single year should be reviewed for the time period specified by the objectives. Zero-base budgeting does require that all existing programs be periodically monitored and evaluated in relationship to their contributions to the district's goals, just as any proposed new program.

The Basic Steps of Zero-Based Budgeting

The zero-base budgeting is performed by engaging in the following basic steps:

1. Determination and Identification of An Organization's Decision Units. A decision unit is any program that consumes resources. Another way of describing a decision unit is that it is a cost center or budget unit. A decision is described in a document called a decision package. The most finite component prepared for analysis in zero-base budgeting is the decision package. Briefly, each decision package must contain, at the minimum, objectives, activities, resources and costs. Decision units and decision packages will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

2. Analysis of Each Decision Package. This process allows the manager of the decision package to reassess and justify its operation. Several basic questions are routinely asked and answered during the analytical process.
   --Does the decision package support and contribute to the goals of the district?
   --What would be the result to the district if the decision package was eliminated?
   --Can the decision package's objectives be accomplished more effectively and/or efficiently? This question requires creative planning by the person(s) developing the decision package.

3. Ranking of Decision Packages. A ranking procedure is used to establish a rank priority of decision packages within an organizational level. Ranking is a way of evaluating all decision packages in relationship to each other. Since there are any number of ways to rank decision packages, organizations will no doubt employ various methods of ranking. The main point is that the ranking of decision packages is an important process of zero-base budgeting.

4. Acceptance and Allocation of Funds. Administrators, after a review and analysis of all decision packages, will accept and determine the amount of funding for each decision package. In a school district this process will probably be done by the Superintendent and the executive cabinet with final review, analysis, and approval by the Board of Education.

5. Budget Preparation. After step four is accomplished, the official district budget document is prepared. This final step leads to Board of Education approval and other required actions as determined by state school law.

Zero-Base Budgeting and the Planning Process

A major planning effort is required by personnel of an organization when installing zero-base budgeting. The planning process provides the basic guidelines and direction needed for the development and ranking of decision packages. Through the planning process administration can prepare for the uncertainty of the future. Because education is a continuous long-term activity, educational planning should encompass not only the next fiscal year but it should also include several years into the future. Long-range planning enables educators to consider the potential consequences of current decisions over an extended period of time.

The planning process provides the mechanism through which administration identifies and establishes the kind of educational program needed by the people in the community the institution was created to serve. The local, state, regional and national educational needs of the school district's public are considered in the planning process. The common components of the planning process in education are:

Educational Philosophy or Mission Statement
Generation of Broad Policies
Needs Assessment
Preparation of General Goals and Objectives
Establishment of Priorities
Resource Indentification
Program Analysis and Selection

During the planning process planners will establish priorities for the needs, goals, and programs of the school district. This level of planning encompasses the whole educational system. The result of this comprehensive planning is the creation of the basic "framework" or "foundation" upon which all learning and support service activities are developed for the educational organization. The planning process utilizes the tools of research and analysis, as well as the creative thinking of the planners.

Educational organizations, currently in operation, have at some time in the past, gone through a planning process. A new or beginning educational organization will start with the planning process in order to create the foundation for its operation. Zero-base budgeting, which requires the development and ranking of decision packages periodically, re-creates a planning process on all levels of the organization. Administrators preparing decision packages will assess and analyze the relationship of their packages to the district's philosophy,

needs, and broad goals. Also, included in the analytical process will be discussions regarding decision package alternatives, recommendations, and resource requirements. The ranking of decision packages establishes the rank order of importance that each package has in relationship to all other decision packages in the organization. Adherence to the concepts and procedures of zero-base budgeting will result in the following:

1. Retention of desirable decision packages (including modification as may be necessary and/or desirable).
2. Elimination of obsolete, non-relevant decision packages.
3. Increased or decreased levels of funding for some decision packages.
4. Addition of new decision packages.

The zero-base budgeting planning process eliminates one of the major disadvantages of most traditional budgeting systems. In the traditional budgeting system planners concentrate on the cost increase from one year to the next year. Singleton ( ) has stated that zero-base budgeting overcomes this traditional budgeting weakness by subjecting all proposed activities and expenditures to the type of scrutiny normally conducted only for proposed new programs. This type of comprehensive resource cost analysis, conducted for all decision packages, is a strong internal planning characteristic of zero-base budgeting.

Accountability and Zero-Base Budgeting

The term accountability is well known to educational administrators. It has a strong relationship with the following:

1. What do you wish to have happen?
2. What procedures are you going to follow to make it happen?
3. What resources are you going to use to make it happen?
4. Did what you wished to have happen actually happen?

Translated in educational language, accountability means:

1. Establishing measureable performance objectives.
2. Developing activities as a means of achieving the performance objectives.
3. Identifying and allocating resources essential for carrying out the activities.
4. Conducting the desired activities.
5. Evaluating objective achievement during and at the end of program activities.
6. Reporting objective achievement to the community served by the institution.

Zero-base budgeting does address itself to certain aspects of accounting, namely comprehensive planning and the development and application of strategies to achieve previously established goals and objectives. Zero-base budgeting, to date, has <u>not</u> placed strong emphasis upon the development of measureable performance objectives along with an effective monitoring and evaluating procedure. If zero-base budgeting is to be considered primarily as a support tool for better planning, then perhaps the monitoring and evaluating procedures can be provided for in the more comprehensive planning models of individual school districts.

However, if educators plan to use zero-base budgeting as a major approach to being more accountable, then it would seem reasonable to expect that they will need to find effective ways to incorporate the evaluation component into the overall process.

In summary, the nature and characteristics of zero-base budgeting indicates a potential for greater use in school districts.

The present model, designed for business and government, will need to be modified somewhat if education is to realize its fullest utility. At the present time, zero-base budgeting is not being used by a large number of educational institutions.

The development of decision packages and their ranking are required processes of zero-base budgeting. Educational planning, decision making, and resource identification and allocation are essential activities associated with the preparation and ranking of decision packages. Zero-base budgeting requires a strong commitment by planners to the process of analysis in decision package development.

The BIA as a division of the Federal government is committed to a program-oriented financial plan. ZBB provides the management system for achieving a program-oriented financial plan.

Summary

Overview of Planning and Decision Making

Planning and decisioning in the public sector during the past 50 years can be briefly summarized as being associated with three major functions of budgeting (in its broad sense)--control, management, and planning:

1. In the 1920's and 1930's budgeting was largely an accounting and control instrument. It was chiefly concerned with controlling expenditures in accordance with the authorization and appropriations. Accounting was the basic budgeting skill during this period of time.
2. The budget device became an important management tool during the 1940' and 1950's. The budget document began to be activity oriented rather than object oriented. Work load, processes, and efficiency measures were developed as additional management tools.
3. During the 1960's and continuing in the 1970's the budget has assumed a new role--planning. Budgeting is becoming concerned with the achievement of objectives. Economists and systems analysts along with planners are now playing a major role in the budget process as systematic analysis of alternative ways to achieve objectives becomes an important part of budgeting. The budgeting concept has thus been expanded to include planning, programming, budgeting and evaluation.

The budgeting system which preceded PPBS or ZBB was not ideal for assisting decisionmakers and planners in the achievement of objectives because:

1. The achievement of existing programs and the planned accomplishments of new programs were not specifically established.

   a. programs were not linked to goals - objectives.
   b. alternatives were not developed.
   c. future year commitments were not delineated.
   d. marginal data were omitted.
   e. evaluation was not present.

2. Efficiency and jobs were more important than product and value (output).

PPBS or ZBB requires in each governmental institution the existence of:

1. A permanent qualified staff having the skill to carry out in depth analysis of the agency's objectives, its programs to meet them, and to evaluate program achievement.
2. A multi-year planning and programming process as a basis for major decisions by institutional officials and the top management.
3. A budgeting process which can take broad program decisions and translate them into the context of a detailed budget for submission to the appropriate planning and decision makers.

PPBS and and ZBB Systems are:

1. Not only concerned with inputs but are also output oriented.
2. Establish the program structure of the institution.

   a. programs are groupings of agency activities which serve the same broad goal.
   b. subprograms are further breakdowns of activities on the basis of objectives.
   c. program elements comprise the specific services that contribute to the achievement of the agency's objectives.

An important analytic document in PPBS or ZBB is the program plan. These plans:

1. Are submitted periodically on each program category.
2. Spell out specific program resources for a multi-year period.
3. Show complete costs of recommended programs.
4. Describe program objectives and expected accomplishments in quantitative terms.
5. Compare each alternative program in terms of effectiveness and cost; old as well as new.

The analytic process generally follows the methodology of systems analysis. It is a continuous process which includes:

1. Defining the problem,
2. Selecting goals and subordinate objectives,
3. Designing alternatives,
4. Data Collection,

5. Constructing prototypes,
6. Analyzing cost against effectiveness,
7. Testing for feasibility,
8. Analyzing the environment against the assumptions,
9. Replanning the objectives,
10. Creating new alternatives,
11. Implementing selected alternatives,
12. Assessing progress,
13. Replanning operations.

What is to be accomplished through PPBS or ZBB? To:

1. Create a more explicit planning decision-making process,
2. Assure the planner and decisionmaker a choice of valid comparable alternatives,
3. Express the elements for planning and decisions in specific quantifiable terms, and when they cannot be quantified, to be explicit about the subjective areas.

However, the basic concepts of PPBS or ZBB are not:

1. New or revolutionary,
2. a substitute for judgement, opinion, experience, and wisdom of concerned officials,
3. an attempt to automate the planning and decision-making process,
4. just another way to save money or cut expenditures,
5. the answer to all problems.

The BIA operated and funded schools are required by P.L. 95-561 to create a financial plan for the operation of their education and administration programs. The organization, structure, guidelines, and management systems are available for the development of the educational and financial plans. ZBB appears to be the most appropriate management system to accomplish the development of BIA local school education and financial plans. Major comprehensive staff development programs are needed by BIA school personnel throughout each Indian reservation. The acquisition of knowledge and skill by BIA local school personnel will insure the successful implementation of P.L.95-561.

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Chapter 9

Diné Teacher Corps Leadership Programs and 95-561

Roger Wilson
Mary Ann Smith
Dennis Salas

The Diné Teacher Corps Leadership Program is highly compatable with and supports the statements contained in the Preamble of Education Standards, Public Law 95-561.

> " Education is society's means of preserving, enhancing and strengthening its way of life. Indian Education must serve to accurately and effectively transmit the social and cultural needs of dynamic and growing American Indian Tribes and Alaskan Natives to their members. Education is an interdependent part of the goals and aspirations of each tribe and must examine and take direction from the tribes' goals in economic development, social programs, natural resource development, cultural lifestyle, language and government. The education system must serve in an accurate and meaningful manner the societies for whom intended. To meet this challenge, Indian schools must become community education centers in partnership with the other institutions in Indian communities with programs designed to guarantee the survival of Indian people by encouraging self-reliance, self-government, and self-respect. Together they can reawaken and enhance the inner strengths of the Indian way of life in order for all to look forward confidently to the values that have kept the Indian traditions alive and sustained life on this continent. Indian schools will foster in the students pride in themselves as members of a strong people and teach them the skills and the understanding of life that is essential to keep them strong. To maintain their ability and determination to reach these objectives, Indian schools need goals of excellence they must strive to meet. The standards set forth here, pledge all Indian schools to provide this high quality education for the Indian students today and for future generations. "

The Leadership program is an example of a collaborative effort among Teacher Corps projects serving similar populations in which, an integration of the concepts of organizational theory, community-based education, and education that is multicultural has been the focus of a collaborative Native American Leadership program developed by the Teacher Corps Native American Projects.

This Leadership Training Program asserts that the focus of Navajo Education should be on the growth, development and the advancement of Navajo Communities. Furthermore, to implement a growing concern to increase Navajo responsibility for Navajo education on the Navajo Nation.

The educational programs currently administered for Navajos do not begin to prepare Navajo youth to acquire the basic socioeconomic knowledge and skills of the continued growth and development of the Navajo culture; only token bi-lingualism is practiced; elementary and secondary education efforts are disjointed, governed by a variety of non-Navajo groups and not coordinated by any agency; Navajo involvement in guiding and controlling their education is spotty and generally not genuine, nor in-depth; perhaps most important of all, Navajo children find it difficult to respect parents who cannot do simple things like managing local schools and protecting their children from having the Navajo culture downgraded in school classrooms. If children cannot respect their parents, can parents have self-respect?

To maximize the benefits which can be secured from education, to do what other school districts and their communities have done throughout the country, to do what the U.S. State Department and the World Bank are helping other peoples to achieve in developing countries throughout the world, the Navajos need to create an educational system which is congruent with their basic philosophy. Navajos need to be sure that a sufficient number of the educational requirements placed upon their children directly relate to the maintenance of the upgrading of the Navajo culture. This includes the teaching of values, history and tradition, language, arts and all other important aspects of Navajo life.

Adult Navajos need to have the experiences associated with seeking to be elected to school boards, to campaigning for elections and to managing local schools; the adults need school/community experience to foster their development, learning activities which they can carry over into other community affairs. Naturally, schools are more for children than adults but it should not be overlooked that those adults who do get involved with the operation and management of the schools are often having about the only institutionally based learning experience available in their remotely located communities.

Essentially then, this is the Navajo educational problem. The existing series of programs is insufficiently supportive of Navajo culture. They do not begin to maximally develop children nor adults, they interfere with development of individual and community self-respect, and they depend upon sporadic, often in-effective, leadership from a variety of unrelated, basically non-Navajo agencies. It is asserted that socioeconomic development has been unreasonably stifled as a result of this failure to intimately involve Navajos with the planning, implementation and evaluation of their own education.

Leadership Program

The successful educational or community organization has one major attribute that sets it apart from the unsuccessful organization: dynamic and effective leadership. There is widespread agreement that leadership is a scarce resource. When we expound on the scarcity of leadership talent in our society, we are not talking about lack of people that are willing to assume significant roles in our society and get the job done effectively. We believe that effective leadership is learnable and that leadership involves skills that can be learned and practiced. We believe

most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training and development.

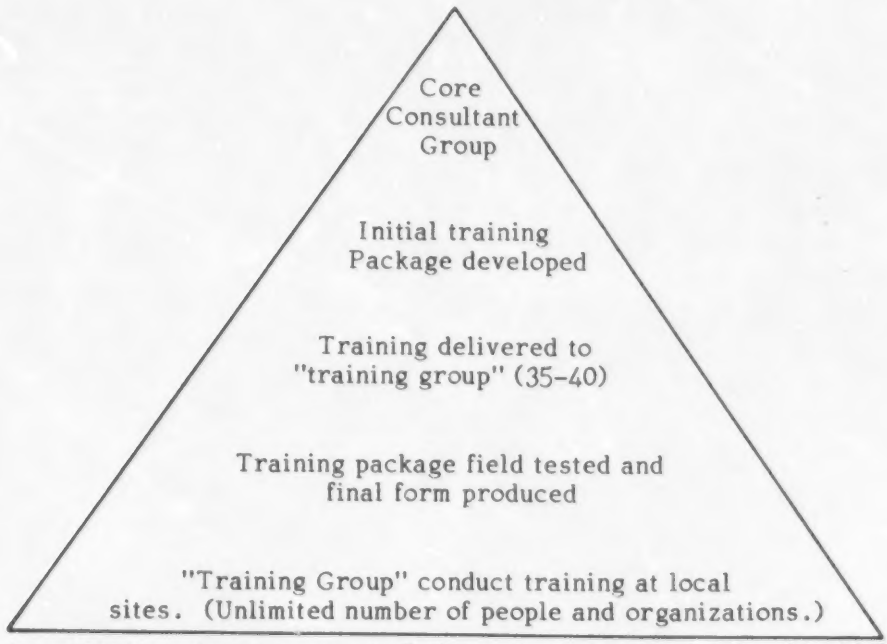
The major emphasis will be to take already proven successful workshop topics, that are built upon the soundest research base available, and develop from them, training packages that will be specific and relevant to the local cultural and reservation situation in which they will be used. Following field testing, the training packages, which will include overall structure, handouts, transparencies and trainers manual will be developed and reproduced in a form to be utilized by the training group.

The pyramid effect could involve an unlimited number of people. At each stage the persons trained would be able to easily reproduce the workshop with little additional study. The series of workshops and packages developed will emphasize a total approach to the development of leadership skills and "how to get things done," which should be the outcome of any leadership training effort.

By using the pyramid effect to approach all training phases, the results will be widespread involvement and maximum impact. The training group will, in most cases, be doing the continued training teamed with an experienced core consultant.

All developed materials (handouts, transparencies, and training manuals) will be made available at a predetermined cost or can be duplicated locally by each project having received training and utilizing the training model.

PYRAMID TRAINING EFFECT



Horizontal Dimension represents # of people trained in Leadership Skills

The chart on the following page illustrates the specific workshop topics designed to provide training in three (3) major areas.

Involvement/Commitment

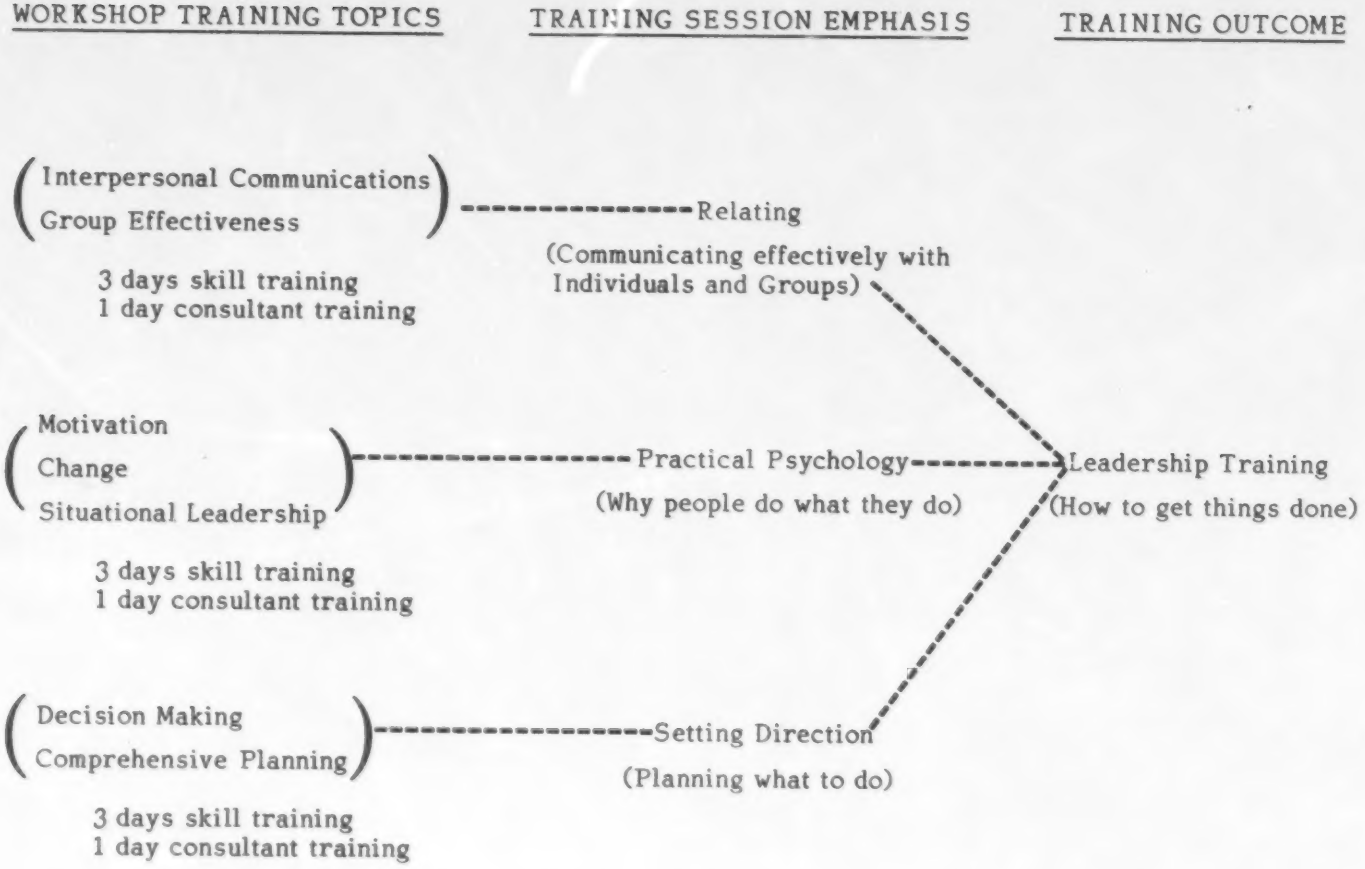
Percent of Commitment	Who will be involved
100%	Local School Board
100%	Local School Supervisors and Staff
100%	NASBA
75%	Community Leaders
75%	Education Leaders
100%	Community (Students, Parents)
50%	IHE (Institute of Higher Education)
75%	Teacher Corps and other Interested Agencies

Documentation

Documentation will provide descriptive information about selected components of the program operations. The principal means of data collection will be focused case studies based on observations at the workshop sessions and interviews with selected participants from various groups including those who plan and organize the sessions and those who simply attend the sessions.

The focused case studies will provide descriptive information about such topics as who the participants are, why they have been selected to participate, what their reactions to the training are, what plans they have to use the training in the future.

The basic questions for the case study will be aimed toward providing information about what happened at the sessions, why it happened that way, and what lessons have been learned from the experience that might be useful for others.


WORKSHOP TRAINING TOPICS
TRAINING SESSION EMPHASIS
TRAINING OUTCOME
Interpersonal Communications
Group Effectiveness
3 days skill training
1 day consultant training
Relating
(Communicating effectively with Individuals and Groups)
Motivation
Change
Situational Leadership
3 days skill training
1 day consultant training
Practical Psychology
(Why people do what they do)
Leadership Training
(How to get things done)
Decision Making
Comprehensive Planning
3 days skill training
1 day consultant training
Setting Direction
(Planning what to do)

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